

**A Linguistic Study
of
Contrasting Features
in the
Style of Two Contemporary English Prose Writers**

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Preface.

1. The aim of this study is to compare some features of the style of two modern English prose writers. The texts selected for this purpose are two contemporary works of fiction: i.e. *Free Fall* by William Golding and *Anglo-Saxon Attitudes* by Angus Wilson.

1a. The study falls into five sections. The first section presents an interpretation of the term "style". Suggestions are made for a method of approaching literary texts in order to show the place of statements regarding style in the total study of the literary work. The implications of the suggested interpretation of the term style are discussed and the relevance of linguistics to the recommended approach to literary studies is also pointed out.

1b. The second section is concerned with an account of the descriptive categories of grammar in terms of which the corpus under study was analysed.

1c. The third section consists of a comparison of some of the grammatical patterns, and their alignments. An effort is made to show how certain descriptive stylistic categories may be set up to talk about particular pattern selections at the level of grammar.

1d. A consideration of lexis and selections of lexical patterns occupies the fourth section. Descriptive stylistic categories are set up to refer to particular patterns selected at this level.

1e. The final section consists of a brief chapter stating some of the implications of the study, as well as pointing out those specific fields of enquiry where most basic work is needed in descriptive linguistics as a prerequisite of stylistic studies.

2. Consequent upon the interpretation of the term "style", the present work is restricted to a discussion of the texts, no account being taken of other factors, as for example biographical details of the author, which are recognized as relevant to the wider study of a literary work. Moreover, only those aspects of the text which are pertinent to their style have been discussed in particular, though there may be incidental comments regarding other aspects. It is inevitable that in a study of the present kind the field should be rigorously delimited, though such delimitation does not imply that other aspects are irrelevant or unimportant. A justification for this particular way of delimiting the field is presented in the first section.

3. The aim of the comparison is not only to discuss these texts in particular, but also to provide by example an indication of a framework for textual analysis and for stylistic comparison, in general. Even as delimited here, the field of stylistics is indefinitely wide; a life time of study even with the aid of computers would not reveal the total of pattern selections possible to texts in any one language. The present study represents only a very minute fraction of what can be said about modern English prose style in stylistic terms: i.e., through the techniques of descriptive linguistics as applied to a continuous text.

4. The theory underlying the descriptive linguistics employed here, in general, is as outlined by M.A.K. Halliday in his *Categories of the Theory of Grammar*, and a certain amount of familiarity with the theory is taken for granted. Many of the particular categories adopted here are those used by Dr. Halliday and Mr. J.McH. Sinclair in their description of *Modern English grammar*. Some extensions and additions to these categories, and

criteria for their textual identification, were evolved in the course of this study. The basis and general direction of the stylistic description is inspired by the work of J.R. Firth and the articles and lectures of Angus McIntosh and M.A.K. Halliday. The interpretation of the scope and function of stylistics in this study is, therefore very largely consistent with that envisaged by McIntosh and Halliday and generally anticipated by Firth, the specific treatment of the subject as developed here is however my responsibility and should not be thought of as representing any views other than my own. The most important respect in which the present interpretation differs from many others is in insisting a) that 'stylistics' is a study of linguistic patterns alone and that it is not competent to discuss qua stylistics the "emotive" aspect of these patterns and b) that the study of style embraces more than just the "marked features" of style such as metaphor, simile, trope, inversion and so on. While the first of these ensures that 'stylistics' can be recognized as a branch of applied descriptive linguistics, the second does much to determine the concept of "style" itself, As will be seen during the course of forthcoming discussions.

5. My thanks are due to Dr. Halliday, whose comments on the first draft of this study were extremely helpful and illuminating. My thanks are also due to Professor Angus McIntosh, with whom discussions on various stylistic points proved very stimulating, while his comments on the first draft of the first section were greatly helpful. I take this opportunity to express my gratitude to Mr. J. McH. Sinclair not only for his comments on points of grammar but also for his kindness in making arrangements which greatly facilitated my work during the last stages of this study. Finally, I wish to thank Professor Abercrombie for general encouragement and for allowing me to make use of his personal library.

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SECTION: I.

CHAPTER I - Introduction.

1. One of the key terms in the present study is "style". This term is used here exclusively to refer to certain aspects of the language of a text; the nature of these aspects is discussed below.

1a. Style has traditionally been used to refer to certain aspects of the literary variety of language, and its definition has been central to literary criticism. Each generation of critics has tended to modify the concept in some respect, but one thing is common to nearly all such definitions: inspite of the repeated efforts to define it, the term style behaves much as if it had never been subjected to the restraints of any formal delimitation. This would suggest two things: either such a delimitation is usually not restrictive enough or there is something "inherently" nebulous about the concept. But "style" is a concept introduced for talking revealingly about a text; only that much is inherent to such a concept as we choose to assign it, within the total framework of the technique for studying a set of events. If "style" is nebulous, it is so because of the values assigned to the concept in the first place. It is the aim of this Chapter

a) to discuss the nature of the values assigned generally to "style" in literary criticism,

b) to suggest an alternative which may be more tractable,

c) to present an outline of the total framework of the technique for studying literary texts with a view to establishing the place of the study of style in this modified sense, and

d) to state what particular aspects of the style of the selected texts¹ are discussed in the present study.

2. In general the literary critic is concerned, in discussing the style of a text, with two aspects: the patterns of language, and their effect.

2a. Such an approach is open to the same kind of objection as a linguistic approach in which, for instance, phonology and grammar are not distinguished. In the study of language, it is desirable to postulate different levels² as each level handles different kinds of abstractions. The initial separation of these levels results in a more economic, simple and complete statement of the meaning³ of linguistic events. As with any text, the meaning of a literary text is "all that it says" or all that it is made up of. Its effect is, therefore, equivalent to each individual's contextualization of all that the text says: It is not directly identifiable with the selection of particular linguistic patterns, without the loss of precision. The question whether definitions of style such as "the style is the man" are 'true' or 'false' does not arise: the relevant question is: do these statements effectively reveal any aspect of the text which can be proved to be valid within certain bounds? In fact, such an approach has led to obscurity and confusion on the one hand, and

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1. The texts selected are *Free Fall* by William Golding (Faber, Paperback) and *Anglo-Saxon Attitudes* by Angus Wilson (Penguin Books.) The abbreviated form for *Free Fall* is F.F., and for *Anglo-Saxon Attitudes*, A-S.A. Where passages or sentences are quoted from either, the name of the book and the number of the page is indicated within brackets: thus, for example, (F.F., p.x.).
 2. For the concept of 'levels' see J.R. Firth: *Papers in Linguistics*, O.U.P., and M.A.K. Halliday: *Categories of the Theory of Grammar*, (Word vol. 17, no.3, Dec. 1961). The article is referred to as 'Categories' hereafter.
 3. J.R. Firth: *Modes of Meaning*, (*Papers in Linguistics*, p.192) "...the suggested procedure for dealing with meaning is its dispersion into modes, rather like the dispersion of light of mixed wave-lengths into a spectrum."

to expressions of personal preferences,¹ on the other. We hope to show below that precisely these characteristics of statements on "style" reduce their effectiveness.

2b. Let us take, for instance, the view: "the style is the man".² Leaving aside the strictly linguistic interpretation³ of this definition, since this is not the literary critic's interpretation, we concentrate on what kind of comments the literary critic makes about 'the man' via his style. Thus Mr. T.S. Eliot on Swinburne, the critic⁴:

"The faults of style are of course personal: the tumultuous outcry of adjectives, the headstrong rush of undisciplined sentences, are the index to the impatience and perhaps laziness of a disorderly mind."

We cannot, in any seriousness, consider this as a valid statement of linguistic features in Swinburne's writing. Neither Mr. T.S. Eliot, nor the conventions of literary criticism in general shed any light upon the nature of "undisciplined sentences" or "the tumultuous outcry of adjectives" - both are, presumably, linguistic features. Such ad hoc, impressionistic categories for referring to language are obviously not susceptible to precise definition. Further, whatever the nature of these categories, when their presence in the text is stated as an "index to the impatience and perhaps laziness of a disorderly mind", a direct correlation between these features of language and that frame of mind is

1. The aim is not to criticize the value of the expression of personal preferences, but to point out that however valuable in itself, it is only a small part of what could be said regarding the text, if the entire text was taken into account with greater precision.
2. Buffon (as quoted by J.M. Murray in *The Problem of Style*, University Paperbacks, p.3.).
3. The definition could be interpreted with reference to a particular variety of an idiolect. See p.1 below.
4. T.S. Eliot: *Imperfect Critics* (The Sacred Wood, p.17, University Paper Back.)

implied. But the relationship is not as transparent; and this point can be illustrated by T.S. Eliot's own comments on Massinger's verse:

"Massinger's verse without being exactly corrupt suffers from cerebral anaemia. To say that an involved style is necessarily a bad style would be preposterous. But such a style should follow the involutions of a mode of perceiving, registering and digesting impressions, which is also involved. It is to be feared that the feeling of Massinger is simple and overlaid with received ideas....."¹

Here the basis of the evaluation of style is the correlation of linguistic features with other features. The premise itself may be open to question, but the comment above does point out that linguistic features cannot be treated as 'diagnostic'.

2b. i The comment about Massinger's work may be more revealing if we were told how in his writings the "mode of perceiving, registering and digesting impressions" fails to be "involved", and what is meant by "simple" feelings or what the instances of feeling "overlaid with received ideas" are. Not being provided with such information reduces the value of the premise, making it a vague statement of personal preferences. Such statements may have a place in the history of the reactions a text has aroused, but beyond that, their value is questionable. We should maintain that if style is to be a methodical study, the vagueness of descriptive terms or statements for which no textual justification is presented, cannot be allowed.

2b.ii Personal preferences about what is called 'style' are occasionally presented in literary criticism as absolute prescriptive rules. Thus, consider the following:

1. T.S. Eliot: Phillip Massinger (The Sacred Wood, p.130-131).

"And throughout the book we are forced to consider much more seriously than they merit, the fragmentary details of sensory and emotional perception. The damage done by this procedure simply to the art of prose is enormous, and, as I have said in my essay on James, if the perfection of the art of the novel results in damage to the art of prose, then there is something wrong with the novel....."¹

Again, the comment might be more revealing if we knew what Winters considers as "the art of prose" or "the art of the novel". Is there one single standard for either of these? And how do we show that 'fragmentary details' get more serious consideration than they 'merit'?

2b.iii The emphasis upon the "affective" or "expressive"² aspect of language to be stated only with reference to the selection of linguistic patterns results in such impressionistic statements as below:

"The sensuous perceptions have aroused an emotional apprehension of the still solitude of an abandoned room; the objects being in an active relation to the emotion, the emotion is crystallized about them. There is no need of these descriptive adjectives, those languid and colourless adverbs which are the refuge of the writer who has not the 'vision and the faculty divine'."³

In this passage, Murry is comparing an extract from Katherine Mansfield with one from Arnold Bennet. In fact, though it is true that the latter has a higher density of 'epithets'⁴, the passage being extolled has a higher density of 'n-elements'⁴. But how do we know that the "emotion is crystallized"? And what are "languid and colourless adverbs"? No such categories of adverb and adjective can be established linguistically, therefore we conclude that it is the passage as a whole, that appears 'languid' and 'colourless' to Murry.

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1. Ivor Winters: Problems of the Modern Critic of Literature (in the Function of Criticism, Routledge and Kegan Paul, p.35).
 2. R. Welleck and Warren: Theory of Literature (A Harvest Book, p.167).
 3. J.M. Murry : Op.cit. (p.92-94).
 4. For a reference to these terms see Section II Chapter IIIA: The Nominal Group.

2b.iv Closely linked with the view of style as the "affective" or "expressive" use of language is the view that style is particularly "creative". In the words of Matthew Arnold¹:

"Magic of style is creative: its possessor himself creates, and he inspires and enables his reader to create after him."

All language, whether literary or non-literary, is creative. Compare the passages below:

- i) "Note particularly that location letters and numbers (for bays and strips) should not be confused with classification letters and numbers."²
- ii) "By night they haunted a thicket of April mist,
Out of that black ground suddenly come to birth,
Else angels lost in each other and fallen on earth,
Lovers they knew they were, but why unclasped, unknissed?
Why should two lovers go frozen apart in fear?
And yet, they were, they were."³

We maintain that both passages quoted above are creative, but that there is a difference in the details of how they create or how their creativity is responded to. The difference between the creative capacities of these two passages is representative of the difference between the non-literary and literary variety of language in general. Therefore, in effect, Matthew Arnold's view of style, identifies the description of the style of a text with its entire meaning.

3. The entire meaning of the text is susceptible to and would gain from an analytic approach. In such an approach to the study of literary texts, each individual aspect of the text would be considered as a separate set of abstractions, and will be referred to as a "stratum". Like Firth's⁴ treatment of language, our study of literature proposes to

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- 1. Quoted by J.M. Murry: Op.cit. (p.94).
 - 2. University of Leeds, Notes for Students; Brotherton Library (p.3 of the folder).
 - 3. John Crowe Ransome: Miriam Tazewell (Poems & Essays, A vintage Book, p.4).
 - 4. J.R. Firth: Papers in Linguistics (Especially The Technique of Semantics; Modes of Meaning and Personality & Language in Society).

split up the meaning of the text into components; each component is different from the other because it is describable with the help of a different set of abstractions; statements regarding the entire text can be made as our analysis of respective strata progresses. This does not imply a dichotomy between the various aspects of a literary text; it is, on the contrary, a device to present a more precise synthetic statement on the basis of the results of such a strata-analysis. As has been shown by the discussion of some uses of the term 'style' in literary criticism, the literary critic invariably makes a synthetic statement in describing the style of a text. The statements are not revealing about the text because they lack the very basis on which a synthetic statement could be made. Much of the obscurity and elusive quality of the term "style" is a logical consequence of taking a second step prior to the first, of stating conclusions without analysing the relevant evidence available from the text.

3a. In this study we propose to use the term "style" to refer to some specific parts of the stratum of linguistic execution alone. This part would consist of the selection and combination of the patterns of language from the levels of form and phonology, extending over the entire text. The description of the style of a text would, therefore, consist of a statement regarding the selection of these patterns, and of their alignments. The success and the depth of our description will depend on the resources of the linguistic model we use. The descriptive terms applied to these patterns will be derived from this model. Consistency of criteria for the identification and analysis of patterns will be insisted upon, enabling us to compare, with greater validity, the selection

of patterns in two texts. Such a comparison will be essentially statistical in nature, consisting of a comparison of the frequencies of particular patterns and of particular patternings of these selected patterns. Statements regarding style will be without prejudice as to their "effect", since the "effect" of a text is not to be identified solely with the formal linguistic patterns. The value of a particular selection is relative: different registers display different tendencies of selection, different situations demand different linguistic selections and no absolute "expressive" value can be attached to any one particular item.

3b. This is not to say that "evaluation" of a literary text is either meaningless or impossible. The aim of restricting the term "style" to apply to only the selection of grammatical, lexical and phonological patterns in a text is to provide us with precise information from one of the various correlatable strata. Other strata such as those of 'situation'¹ can be analysed separately and statements from each stratum may be finally correlated in a synthetic statement, giving us more precise information about the bases of any evaluation. It is expected that synthetic statements made thus, would be more effective. We prefer not to use the term "style" for synthetic statements because style has been, in particular, associated with language. It appears reasonable to retain it to refer to the stratum of linguistic execution of texts. The term "evaluation" can be used for synthetic statements regarding literary texts.

4. The implications of this restricted interpretation of the term "style" must be reviewed.

i) First of all, it insists on the affinity of literary texts to other texts. All texts are alike in this respect of "being contained in

1. And others - to be discussed below.

language"¹ i.e. of having a "component" (stratum) of 'linguistic execution'.

ii) Therefore,

"If the techniques of the linguist are successful in dealing with general and everyday uses of language, they ought also to be useful in dealing with literature."²

In other words, the descriptive terms employed to discuss the language of a literary text are basically the same as those employed for the description of the other varieties of language.

iii) Any given text may be assigned to a particular register on the basis of the selections of linguistic patterns; a similar treatment of the linguistic execution of a large variety of texts provides us with one criterion for distinguishing literature from non-literature.

iv) If the assignment of a given text to the literary variety of English depends upon its linguistic selections, we logically cannot start with ad hoc descriptive categories, set up because of the 'peculiarities' of literary texts. Such ad hoc categories may be linguistic i.e. referable to a linguistic model or they may be non-linguistic. Those employed by the literary critic are essentially non-linguistic, mainly based on individual impressions. But certain modes of describing the text linguistically may also seriously restrict the usefulness of the description. To construct, for example, a "grammar" that is valid only for the description of a particular text under observation is less useful because, at best, it can only state the style of that one text without any possibility of valid comparison; consequently the value of the description is very limited. Although measuring a text in terms of whether it can be generated by an ordered set of rules in Transformation Grammar, may provide us with a measurement of

1. A Hill: English Metrics: A Restatement (mimeographed).

2. Ibid.

deviation,¹ it does not help us, in identifying registers, specially since deviations can differ in nature² and extent. It is, therefore, desirable to select a model which can provide a set of categories capable of handling the majority of the texts of a language, displaying not only 'deviations' but also points of similarity.

v) If under "style" we discuss all the selections of linguistic patterns discovered in a text, it follows that not only do all texts have style but their style ranges over the entire text. Style is not 'Spasmodic', nor is it possible for a text or a part of it to have "more style" than another. In this respect our approach to style is different not only from that of the literary critics in general but also from the approach of some linguists, such as for example S.A. Levin. He maintains that:

"Texts which are worth analyzing, however, are texts which have a style. By having a style, we usually mean that a text in some way deviates from the statistical norms of the language. The norms of course have to be determined by a prior study of the ordinary language."³

'The statistical norms of the language' can be established only on the basis of the analysis of the texts of all varieties. The concept of 'language' itself is an abstraction; language is the sum total of all the instances of all the varieties of a language and these are its only 'instantial' manifestations. If we concentrate only on deviations we run the risk that

a) our concept of deviation may not be, in fact, linguistically defined, and

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1. Cf. S.R. Levin: Poetry and Grammaticalness (Preprints of Papers for the Ninth International Congress of Linguists, Cambridge, Mass., 1962, p.234). See also Linguistic Structures in Poetry (Mouton & Co., S-Gravenhage).
 2. "I am going to Switzerland to buy" is presumably ungrammatical according to Transformation Grammar (i.e. a deviation). What is the value of this deviation as opposed to the deviation in "Colourless green ideas"?
 3. S.R. Levin: Linguistic Structures in Poetry, fn.11, p.16 (Mouton & Co., S-Gravenhage).

b) that we may never manage to state the general norms if all we analyze are just deviants, as is recommended by the above approach.

Statements regarding deviations are more effectively made by reference to register norms, once these have been established. Thus we may consider the following, a deviation from the 'general norm':

".....the Tenant agrees to take All That Ground
Floor Flat
Situate and being at 9 Springfield Mount....."¹

However, if we relate it to the register of "Tenancy Agreement", the underlined is not a deviant, but merely represents the 'normal use of language in this particular variety'. Patterns which are specific only to one variety of a language may be called "register features". Patterns specific to a register do not necessarily consist of lexical selections only; it is envisaged that the proportion² of various grammatical - and phonological patterns³ - may constitute a particular register-feature, as may be seen for example by comparing the proportion of single and compound sentences in two varieties.

By insisting on the non-spasmodic nature of style, we provide not only for a statement of those aspects of the style of a text which are in conformity with the general norm, but also for those which are deviations (a) from the general norm of the language and (b) from the norm of a particular variety. Consider for example the difference that would be 'felt' if in the above Tenancy agreement the underlined was substituted by:

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1. Tenancy Agreement form supplied by B.P. Towler, Estate Agents and Valuer, Leeds.
 2. The proportions of various patterns, in themselves, constitute a "pattern". It is in this sense that style is a "study of the repatterning of the available and selected patterns of language".
 3. Phonological patterns seem most relevant to the discussion of the style of a literary text, but they present a vast field of enquiry with reference to other registers as well. What is the difference between the phonological patterns of a poem full of imperative and interrogative clauses as compared with another set of imperatives in an instruction booklet?

".....All That Ground Floor Flat in one of those fine, old houses, at 9 Springfield Mount"

The underlined would be a deviation from the register norm of Tenancy Agreement: the document (or text) itself may still be considered as an instance of that particular register because of the frequent selection of specific "register-features".

Linguistic patterns which occur with a uniform frequency over all varieties of English, are the basis for the general norm of the language. What the Prague School calls 'automatized elements'¹ of language, would, in our opinion be, (a) the basic general norm patterns and (b) register features specific to a particular register. "Foregrounded linguistic elements"¹ on the other hand, can be established with reference to both general and register norms: such "foregrounded linguistic elements" may be either a deviation from general norm or a deviation from a given register to which the text belongs primarily. "Thicket of April mist"² may be a deviation from general norm, but is an instance of a register feature of the literary variety, while the above quoted example of substitution is deviating from a particular variety but not from the general norm. It is useful to draw these distinctions between the kinds of deviations and the kinds of norms, as it helps in making more effective statements about texts. In literary texts, for instance, we may come across both, the deviation from the general norm and the mixing of more than one register-feature in the same text. This approach to style enables us to make statements regarding passages such as below:³

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1. S.R. Levin: Linguistic structures in Poetry (f.n.12, p.17): "Automatized Linguistic elements do not call attention to themselves; they merely communicate. Foregrounded linguistic elements on the other hand, do call attention to themselves...."
 2. Cf. Stanza quoted from J.C. Mansome's Miriam Tazewell p.6 above.
 3. Such brief examples are not fully competent to illustrate the point adequately but they may succeed in indicating what kind of deviations are under discussion.

- i) "He didn't own it as a freehold property but he had a ninety nine years' lease of it, which, as far as a man and an island are concerned, is as good as everlasting".¹
- ii) " 'Is he really your husband?' he asked.
'He is!' she answered grimly.
'Hm!' Then there was silence again.
After a while: 'Are you warm, now?'
'Why do you bother yourself?' "²

Neither of these passages presents instances of 'deviation' in Levin's sense of the term ('semi/ungrammatical' patterns). If style and deviation are measured by the degree of grammaticality the above passages "have no style", and are therefore "not worth analyzing"³. We should maintain that literary texts are full of such use of language and any description of the language of a text must be competent to handle both, the combination of registers, in the first passage and the absence of literary register feature⁴ in the second.

5. The study of style, as recommended here, is not presented as a substitute for the traditional one, for there is a difference in the kind of aims that the two approaches have. The present approach, being essentially analytic, is limited to the discussion of only one aspect of the text, and the validity of statements can be checked by the renewal of connection with the data. Two plausible objections may, however, be raised against such an approach:

- i) There is more emphasis on the style of texts rather than of individual authors, and
- ii) By limiting the scope of the term "style" in this manner we have completely ignored the "expressive" aspect of language.

1. D.H. Lawrence: *The Man who Loved Islands* (*Love Among the Haystacks*, Penguin Books, p.97).

2. D.H. Lawrence: *Love Among the Haystacks*, p.38.

3. Cf Levin's quotation on p.10 above.

4. "Conversation" may be said to be a literary register feature, but this would be, strictly, incorrect, since both in journalism and in reports of discussion groups we tend to "have" the feature of "conversation".

5a. The emphasis on individual texts is not a disadvantage; on the contrary it may be an advantage. The style of one text may be an 'indication' of how the author writes, but a generalization regarding an author's style from the consideration of one text alone does not possess much validity. For more specific statements about an author's style, we logically need to concentrate upon each individual text by the author, from which can be abstracted those linguistic features which are common to all texts: these may be called an author's 'stylistic features'. Stylistic features are idiolectal features of a writer's language; the greater their number and combinations, the easier it is to detect him. In the words of William Puttenham:¹

"Style is a constant and continual phrase or tenour of speaking or writing, extending to the whole tale or process of the poem or history and not properly to any piece or member of a tale; but is of words, speeches and sentences together a certain contrived form and quality such as he (the writer) will not, or peradventure cannot easily alter into any other".

One of the incidental advantages of concentrating upon individual texts is the facility in comparing two such texts by the same author or by two different authors. Since a study of style based on individual texts is more specific and permits statements of greater delicacy, such comparison is expected to be more specific and delicate than the one made in general terms.

5b. The objection that the "expressive" aspect of language is entirely ignored in the present study of style would be considered serious if in our approach to style there was a suggestion that this was all that

1. William Puttenham: *The Arte of English Poesie*; Puttenham here identifies 'style' with what we call 'stylistic feature' ("a quality such as he..... into any other".) It is in this sense that "Style is the man" may be interpreted linguistically as "idiolectal features" only.

could be said of a literary text. In fact, we recognize the importance of synthetic statements by postulating a series of strata in literary texts, each susceptible to a particular kind of treatment, and each presenting one mode of the meaning or effect or value of the literary text. The stratum of linguistic execution is one of these. If 'style' is treated not as the entire prism but as one band of it, with its own place with respect to other bands and the prism itself, then the analysis of this particular band can reveal only a part of the meaning of the prism¹. Precisely because style in this sense aims to describe a rigorously limited area from the entire meaning, our statements, capable of being more exhaustive and detailed, may have greater value, when they are made use of in a synthetic statement. Below, is presented a brief account of the recommended approach to the study² of literary texts, the aim being to show the "place" of the description of a text's style in the whole study and to show in what other respects the use of linguistics may help us in approaching such texts.

6. The concept of "levels"³ in literary texts is not a new idea. Literary criticism, without clearly formulating the principle of the dispersion of meaning into modes, has by implication recognised its need in discussion. For example Quintana⁴ in discussing Gulliver's Travels says:

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1. The analogy is based on Firth's analogy of the "meaning" of texts as a "spectrum" (Modes of Meaning: Papers p.192), also referred to above (p.6,f.n.4).
 2. See R. Jakobson on the distinction between the study and criticism of literature in his *Linguistics and Poetics* pp 358-378 in *Style in Language* edited by T.A. Sebeck (Technology Press and Wiley).
 3. The word "strata" instead of "levels" is preferred here with reference to literary texts, since the term "level" has been appropriated by the theory of General Linguistics to refer to "modes" of meaning in language. For "levels" see Firth (Ibid) F.R. Palmer (*Linguistic Hierarchy*; *Lingua* 7, 1957-58) and M.A.K. Halliday: (*Categories of the Theory of Grammar*). We conceive of "strata" in literary studies, in general, as a parallel concept to "levels" in linguistic studies, although in details these two may differ.
 4. R. Quintana: *Swift: An Introduction* (Chap. VII Lemuel Gulliver World Traveller, p.158-165; Oxford Paperback).

"As satiric comedy Gulliver's Travels is many things and embraces many levels of intention and execution".

He then goes on to show how evidence from the text confirms his statement. Welleck and Warren¹, by implication, suggest that such stratification in the study of literary texts is not only possible but desirable in order to grasp as much of the meaning of the text as existing techniques may allow. We propose to set up a series of strata with reference to and in order to meet the requirements of each particular literary text. The only stratum that must be present, is obviously the stratum of linguistic execution. Others are observed to be optional: a literary text may or may not have a stratum of 'history' or 'sociology' or 'economics', for instance, individually or in combination.

6a. The stratum of linguistic execution² being obligatory must be explored first. At this stratum, all texts are alike to a certain extent; to repeat: they are all 'contained in language'. This stratum itself may be further subdivided into levels of language as set up within the linguistic sciences. These levels are the levels of substance, phonology, grammar, lexis, context and context of situation.³ The differences of selection at the levels of phonology, grammar and lexis are the differences of style between two texts, but the difference between the treatment of the levels of context, and context of situation⁴ between two texts may, in

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1. R. Welleck and A. Warren: Theory of Literature (specially parts III and IV.)
 2. See p.7, 3a above.
 3. Cf. M.A.K. Halliday's diagrammatic representation of the levels in Categories of the Theory of Grammar (p.244, 1.7) The levels considered relevant to the study of style are those of phonology, grammar and lexis, see p. 7, 3a, above.
 4. 'Situation' can range from most general to most particular or 'immediate situation'. In discussing 'situation' here we are concerned with that part of it which is relevant to 'how' the text communicates in everyday use of language and not with features of extra-linguistic situation which apply to the text as a whole.

general correspond to the difference between literary and non-literary texts.

Two pieces of language are presented below to elucidate the kind of difference that may be found:

- i) "Seats may be reserved in advance on the trains shown below for passengers joining at the stations indicated, fee 2/- per seat, upon personal or postal application only. (Postal applications, stating destination, class and date of travel should be accompanied by the appropriate fee, and stamped addressed envelope)....."¹
- ii) Fare forward, travellers! not escaping from the past
Into different lives, or into any future;
You are not the same people who left that station
Or who will arrive at any terminus,
While the narrowing rails slide together behind you....."²

The 'thesis'³ on the first passage is what we would like to describe as 'transparent'. Since the 'instantial'⁴ contextual meaning of the passage may be unambiguously stated with the help of descriptive categories set up to account for context and situation, the question of varying the degree of 'delicacy of focus'⁵ is pertinent and answerable. But the second passage presents a thesis (or a series of theses) the instantial contextual meaning of which may be stated only by 'inference'. In detailed discussions of the contextual meaning of the first passage our points of 'reference' are transparently present in situation. We can ask: Will reservation be made upon personal or upon postal application or upon both? The correlates in the situation will effectively answer this

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1. British Railways North-Eastern Region Passenger Services Timetable, 1963-64, page 46.
 2. T.S. Eliot: The Dry Salvages (III, lines 137-41, from Four Quartet, Faber Paper covered Editions, p.41).
 3. All descriptive categories in talking of context and context of situation, are borrowed here, unless otherwise stated, from J.O. Ellis: On Contextual Meaning (to appear in Firth Memorial Volume, Longmans Green, London.)
 4. J.O. Ellis: Op.cit. For the origin of the Concept of 'instantial/potential' see Angus McIntosh: Graphology and Meaning (Arch. L. Vol. 13 p.107-120 ; 1961.)
 5. J.O. Ellis: Op.Cit.

question, in practice. In other words a dimension of 'verification' may be set up for passages of the first kind¹ by appealing to extra-linguistic situation; for the second kind of language piece this axis of verification is not available. The question: Are they really not the same people who left the station? can be answered only by what more the text can tell us about the 'people'. Reference to extra-linguistic situation is impossible since it does² not exist. The theses of the second passage are, therefore, 'inferred'³. The mode of establishing such theses is to select in combination those of the potential formal contextual meanings which are most 'consistent' i.e. account for most formal items, and to consider these as instantial in a given text/part of text.

6a. i 'Inference' is possible because we are used to certain conventional contextual values which are ascribed to particular linguistic categories. Angus McIntosh in discussing this kind of inference, and its dependence upon the conventional contextual values says:

"I mainly want to suggest that this acceptance of them (i.e. of utterances whose situational correlates may be manifestly absent.).... is very akin to what we are doing all the time in our more normal encounter with utterances For we are completely accustomed to

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1. Without such 'verification' the concept of 'adequacy' would be meaningless. For the concept of 'Adequacy' see Angus McIntosh: *Graphology and Meaning* to appear shortly in *Patterns of Language* (McIntosh and Halliday, published by Longmans and Green, London).
 2. It is suggested that this may be a 'linguistic' definition of what is called 'fiction' or 'fictional aspect' of literature. There is no implication that the axis of verification is always missing in the case of a literary text, but since it is missing in a large number of cases, we may postulate that the concept of 'true' and 'false' in the propositional sense of these words does not apply to literary texts, as literature.
 3. The difference between 'inferred' and 'transparent thesis' does not correlate with written or spoken mode. The 'transparent' thesis is potentially transparent because of the axis of verification and not because of being contiguous to the TQ. TQ: Time of thesis, see J.O. Ellis: *Op.Cit.*

uses of language which as it were force us to envisage events or attitudes that we probably should never envisage were it not precisely because of the impact on us of saying".¹

Just to maintain the balance we would like to stress the two-way relationship here - we are able to 'envisage' events and attitudes because of 'the impact of saying' because in our previous experience, sayings, in some respects similar², have co-occurred with such events and attitudes.

6a. ii To present diagrammatically we have the following position with regard to texts and extra-linguistic situations:

Fig. 1. Non-literary texts.

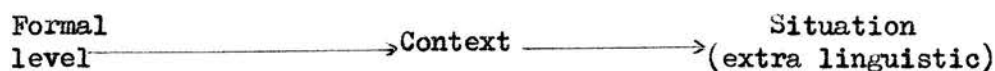


Fig. 2. Literary³ texts.



As the diagrams show, mostly the situation relevant to the utterances of a literary text is the 'inferred' situation from the text. This will be called 'textual situation', to distinguish it from those actual situational

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1. Angus McIntosh: Sayings (Paper delivered to English Department, University of Leeds, De., 1963; scheduled to appear in the Special Volume of A Review of Lit. January 1965). Items within brackets are ours.
 2. Consider Nonsense Rhymes in this light. If we were not given certain indications of the presence of some known linguistic categories with the conventional contextual values, we would not be able to infer any 'meaning' from them. Such categories represent the 'method' in the madness of Lewis Carroll or Edward Lear, for example.
 3. This should not be taken to apply only to 'literary' texts literally: e.g. what is the position of 'religious writing' in this respect?

features which are not primarily relevant to the individual utterances of the text but may be valuable for the contextualisation of the text as a whole (e.g. the time and place of its composition, and its authorship).

6a.iii The inferred contextualisation and the postulate of textual situation require that only those statements should be made about this aspect of the text which can be justified by and make use of the majority of utterances of a given text. A broad subdivision ~~of~~ the entire meaning of the literary text may be made by reference to these features of 'situation'. These subdivisions may be called:

- a) The stratum of internal meaning of the literary text.
- b) The stratum of external meaning of the literary text.

The stratum of internal meaning is dependent upon the various subdivisions of the stratum of linguistic execution. The subdivisions are:

- a) Aspects related to 'style (or stratum of style i.e. the levels of phonology, grammar and lexis).
- b) Aspects related to context and the textual context of situation (or stratum of textual context)

The stratum of the external meaning of the literary text is abstracted from the correlation of the text with those extra linguistic features of situation which though irrelevant to the contextualisation of each individual utterance in the text, are relevant to the text as a whole.

Both meanings are important and which should be studied in exclusion or priority to the other, in a given instance, is determined by the aim of studying a text.

7. The stratum of textual context may be subdivided into two strata:

i) Those which are "organic" to the text, such as 'character', 'theme' and 'plot' or the organic structure stratum. It is envisaged that these abstractions refer to certain correlations between certain contextual meanings of the textual situation. The strata of style and of organic structure have been the main concern of literary critics. The fact that they are both primarily derived from linguistic execution is reflected in the approach of the monistic school¹ of criticism, which insists upon the 'unity' of structure, style and context. 'This series of indentifications leads to a theoretical paralysis' in their case, (as Welleck and Warren point out), because they do not take sufficient account of the different kinds of abstractions involved in describing these aspects of literature. Though primarily style, structure and context are all referable to the unity of linguistic execution, there is a difference in kind between the levels relevant to style and those relevant to the other aspects.

ii) It is self-evident that the entire range covered by extralinguistic situation in Fig. 1, p. 19, excepting only those features of the general situation which relate to the contextualization of the text as a whole, will be reflected in textual situation of Fig. 2, (page 19). That this may be so is tacitly accepted in literary criticism by the assertion: "literature is the mirror of life". Mirrored in our literary texts may be a host of "registers" such that while their register features exist and are established at the stratum of style², their situational correlate may be found in the textual situation. We might therefore call this the stratum of Psuedo Register Situation.

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1. Croce is considered to be one of the most outstanding monistic critics of literature in this Century.
 2. The traditional epithet "adequate" used in literary criticism to describe style, may, in fact, be related to this mirror-relationship, of register-feature and its conventional correlate in textual situation.

7a. A literary text may "have" any number of Psuedo-Registers¹ within itself. More delicately each such Psuedo-Register found in a text constitutes a stratum of the text's meaning.² Taking Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, as an example: some of the Psuedo-Registers in the novel are history, archaeology, economics, and sociology.

The two approaches to Psuedo-Register situations which may enable us to make effective statements regarding their contribution to the literary text are:

- i) via the axis of reference
- ii) via the axis of consistency.

7a. i The axis of reference may either take the form of 'factual verification' or of seeking a point of reference in extralinguistic situation which may be considered parallel in some measure to the inferred Psuedo-Register situations in the text. As an example of the first, part of the meaning of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is that the episode of the excavation of Eorpwald's tomb is amenable to factual verification by reference to the field of English history. 'Verification' of this type is relevant both negatively and positively. As an example of the second, consider the stratum of philosophy in Faust, for which we may find a point of reference in the field of Philosophy of that age. Again whether the result of such an enquiry is positive or negative is relevant to the meaning of the text.

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1. When we say that the 'mixing of register features' is a characteristic of literary style and therefore of literary text (see p. 9 - Cf. 4 iii, above), we are considering the 'same' characteristic, from a different stratum.
 2. The analysis of Psuedo-registers may vary in delicacy, e.g. we may break down Archaeology to a specific kind of excavation at a time and place.

7a.ii This axis appears to be more pertinent to those Psuedo-Register situations which have a corresponding field of study in extralinguistic situation, though use may be made of it, for example in the non-technical psuedo-register situation of travelling¹ to see what parallel points of reference may be found positive. Since neither verifiability nor the presence of a parallel point of reference in extralinguistic situation is an essential requirement of literary texts (Cf. f.n.2, p.18 above) there is no implication of 'merit' in a 'positive' discovery, but that such is or is not the case is a meaningful statement. Sometimes a text may present an intricate mixture of the 'positive' and the 'negative' as in Shakespeare's History Plays or Graves in I Claudius and Claudius the God. Further, since Literature does not insist upon actual extra linguistic reference, and since it combines various register-features at the Strata of Style and Psuedo-Register Situations (Cf example i, p. 13 above), we may postulate that if a text limits itself to the selection of specific register features of one particular register such that their situational correlates have a high degree of positive extra linguistic reference and verifiability then the text may be considered non-literary. But there are various stages between non-literary and literary texts and a "cline"² of literariness may be established with reference to the strata of textual context and style.

7b. The axis of consistency embraces two kinds of consistency:

i) At a given degree of delicacy of focus³ how many register

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1. Cf examples on p. 17, i, ii, above: 'Traveller': is he a 1st class, 2nd class passenger? (no point of reference) 'Escaping from the past': is it parallel to 'Escaping from London'? And such other questions will reveal that the 'situation' of the Eliot passage is not 'travelling' in the everyday travelling by transport situation.
 2. For the concept of "cline" see M.A.K. Halliday: Categories of the Theory of Grammar.
 3. See J.O. Ellis: Contextual Meaning.

situations the text 'has'¹.

ii) Between the strata of Style and Psuedo-Register Situation, what is the degree of consistency? This is a complicated question: the inferred register situations of a literary text are directly inferred from certain (linguistic) utterances in the text. To avoid the danger of circularity we should not ask: Is the language adequate to the situation, but more particularly: At a given stage in the literary text is there a consistency of register features, and absence of other register features which if present may 'diffuse' the 'inferred situation'?²

8. Reference has been made to the stratum of the external meaning of a literary text. The general situational features relevant to the study of a literary text may be discussed under:

- i) The dimension of time.
- ii) The authorship.
- iii) The place of the composition of the text.

8a. The dimension of time is relevant to the contextualization of any text³, but in literary studies its relevance can be felt most with reference to:

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1. Thus at the most 'approximate' degree of delicacy Gulliver's Travels has one register situation: a sailor describing the places he has seen. It is to the axis of consistency that the traditional concept of "the suspension of disbelief" in literary criticism makes a tacit reference. From this point of view, the appendices attached to Anglo-Saxon Attitudes have the value of contributing to the consistency of one of the psuedo-register situations (Historical Excavation).
 2. Consider for instance the 'inferred situation': 'A frightened and lonely child', from Angus Wilson's short story Necessity's Child (Such Darling Dodos, Penguin Books). Here utterance after utterance, and feature after feature relates specifically to this situation, without any other features relating to a contradictory (e.g. of joy) situation. This results in 'reinforcing' the 'inferred situation', which would have been 'diffuse' if other contradictory expectancies had been aroused by other register feature and Psuedo-registers. (See R. Hasan: The Linguistic Study of a Literary Text, Dissertation for Diploma in Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh, 1961).
 3. Such features as are common to time dimension are discussed in detail by M.A.K. Halliday in The Chinese Secret History of the Mongols (Phil. Soc. Publications XVII, Blackwells, p.14, III, 1.2 etc.).

- i) The language of the time of the composition.
- ii) The author's age (i.e. the time at which he lived and worked) and
- iii) The reader's age (i.e. the time at which a particular reader reads a particular text).

8a. i In discussing the linguistic levels pertinent to the study of style, two kinds of norms were established¹: (i) general norms and (ii) register norms. Both these 'norms' are the norms of a language at a given time in its history. Each 'etat de langue' varies to some extent in its norms from another 'etat de langue'. The totality of pattern-selections in a language at a given time are relevant to the style of a text, though, as Wellek and Warren point out, Bateson overstates his case when he says:

"My thesis is that the age's imprint in a poem is not to be traced to the poet but to the language.² The real history of poetry is the history of the changes in the kind of language in which successive poems have been written."³

Using linguistic techniques for the study of the meaning of a literary text, we would hesitate to circumscribe the 'real history' of poetry as narrowly as Bateson does.

8a.ii By reference to available pattern-selections for an etat de langue, we may set up one parameter for measuring the originality⁴ of style. The deviation from those patterns, stateable at a high degree of abstraction

1. See pp.13-17 and other occasional references above.

2. This is an unjustifiable dichotomy if by 'poet' is meant the poet's language', since an 'etat de langue' is an abstraction from 'parole' and the poet's language is an instance of a variety of 'parole'.

3. F.W. Bateson: English Poetry and the English Language (Oxford, p.vi).

4. "Originality" would be purely linguistic category without any implication of merit - see also pp. 13-17 above (register norm and originality).

can be 'measured' more easily than those which involve a consideration of individual linguistic items. The statements of phonological and grammatical structure are statements of a high degree of abstraction: the persistence, for example, of the structure SP^1 through several *etats de langue* of English is, in fact, the persistence of a structure, not necessarily of items exponent² of the structure. Therefore if in a text we come across patterns which do not recognise the distinctions made by "order"² in English, the deviation can be more definitely stated than it could if individual items were involved. In lexis, there are no such rigorous rules of possible patterns. Statements are statements of probability, therefore deviations are difficult to measure, though the field of probable "collocations" could be narrowed down by reference to registers. A consideration of "Colligation" - the relationship of lexical items expounding two different elements of structure within a particular structure - may provide us with further information regarding the originality of style.

8a.iii By reference, generally, to the strata of style and organic structure we may set up further subdivisions of the literary variety of language, e.g. very broadly 'prose' and 'verse'. Each delicate sub-variety of literature has a high degree of correlation with certain expected selections at the stratum of linguistic execution; these are called "conventions"³ in literary criticism. "Conventions", like language, are not 'static'; their modification through time makes time dimension even more relevant to literary studies, and provides yet another measure of the

1. See Section II, Chapter IIB, 2-2g, pp. 72-84 below.

2. For the meaning of these terms, see MA.K. Halliday: *Categories*.

3. This is an approximation: there is no implication that the abstractions postulated here are identical with terms in literary criticism.

originality of a given text.¹

8a.iv Time dimension, through the concept of *etat de langue* is relevant to the comparison of two literary texts. Texts belonging to two different *etat de langue* may present different² problems in comparison, which, to a certain extent, may be the problems of comparison as in comparative linguistics. Since for two (or more) *etat de langue*, one-to-one correspondence of linguistic categories may not exist³, we may need to recognize different categories for each, and a comparison of these as well as that of the actual occurrences of the categories may have to be studied.

8b. The author's 'age' is relevant as it represents the *etat de langue*, and the 'conventions' of the time for a sub-variety of literary language. Authors who have preceded and authors who follow are relevant, by implication.

8c. The distance in time between the reader's age and the author's age is an important factor, partly for the same reasons as in 8b above, but also through the stratum of Pseudo-Register Situation. The difference in linguistic norms may very nearly make a work inaccessible to a reader at a great distance in time⁴. Furthermore some writers are 'original' with

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1. The relevance of time dimension is generally accepted in literary criticism. See B. Dobree: *Modern Prose Style* (specifically pages 5-7; The Clarendon Press, Oxford).
 2. i.e. different from comparison of the texts of the 'same' *etat de langue*, in which the 'value' of linguistic categories is the 'same'.
 3. e.g. Comparison of the 'exploitation' of 'Pronouns' in Shakespeare and Yeats will require a consideration of the values of these items in the respective '*etat de langue*'; a mere statement of the frequencies of 'pronouns' in the texts, in themselves, will not be very revealing. See McIntosh: *As You Like It: A Grammatical Clue to Character*, (*A Review of English Literature* Vol. IV, No.2. 1963).
 4. Cf. early stages of Urdu (Rikhti) and modern Urdu speakers.

reference to 'conventions'¹; these may remain 'unaccepted' (i.e. 'not followed') for a long time, till a particular age of readers² exploits their "originality" further. At the stratum of Psuedo-Register Situation certain 'inferred' situations may find no point of reference when the literary text is written, but after some time this inferred situation may find a parallel.³ For this reason the literary critic claims that all ideas and philosophies germinate in literature. While a reader invariably compares the inferred situations of a literary text with their parallels in his age, an awareness of what range of general situations was possible during the author's age constitutes another mode of the meaning of the literary text.

8d. The stratum of 'authorship' is concerned with the life history of the author. It may lead to even certain overt correlations⁴ of events in the author's life with certain events in the textual situations, as is the case in 'autobiographies'. Again the verification of such events is not 'necessary' to the text as literature, but the statement of close 'similarity' between real and inferred events is meaningful.

8e. The place of the composition of the text may have relevance to the strata of style and textual context of situation, through local dialectal features and the range of extra-linguistic situations.

9. We can sum up this account of the series of strata envisaged in a literary text. As a first step we may postulate that a text has:

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1. e.g. the first 'metaphysicals', the first 'Romanticists' - Originality with reference to convention may be related to various 'schools' of literature.
 2. The present day reader with reference to the 'metaphysicals', for example.
 3. In such cases, traditionally, a writer is said to be born "before his time", as for example, D.H. Lawrence.
 4. For example, with reference to William Golding's *Free Fall*, it may be meaningful to know whether he was a prisoner of war at any time.

1. The Stratum of Internal meaning.

2. The Stratum of External meaning.

The stratum of internal meaning is approached through what we may call the stratum of linguistic execution which includes the following sub-divisions

Phonology	}	Stratum of style
Grammar		
Lexis		
Context and Situation	}	Stratum of textual context

Stratum of textual context is further subdivided into:

a) the stratum of organic structure.

b) the stratum of Psuedo Register situations.

b) above can be more delicately sub-divided to nth degree as the aim of study may require. a) is sub-divided into 'character', 'plot', 'theme' and other aspects referable to organic structure.

The stratum of external meaning is sub-divided into:

a) Time Dimension Stratum.

b) Authorship Stratum and

c) Place stratum.

9a. Strata in literary texts are not conceived of as a hierarchy, here; either of the strata (external/internal) may be studied first according to the aim of the study. Any statement regarding strata composing the internal meaning must refer to the language of the text. No statements about any of these, unsupported by at least some utterances in the text may be made. As each stratum is analysed it draws upon the analysis of another stratum, at the same time contributing to it.¹ Though

1. Consider 'style' and 'inferred situation' or 'style and character' or 'inferred situation' and 'theme'.

the scope of 'style' itself is restricted here, the spectrum-like dispersion of the meaning of literary texts is expected to provide us with more revealing statements regarding the total "effect" or "meaning" of the text. Style, as an individual stratum, contributes to such statements and its greater value resides in the fact that it provides us with a surer and sounder basis for correlation, hence, for synthetic statements. Therefore it is irrelevant to the assessment of such statements of style, whether, for example, Caroline Spurgeon¹ can "critically and imaginatively apply"² the information she collects about Shakespeare's metaphors. The usefulness of her work as a description of one aspect of Shakespeare's use of language is to be measured only by the consistency of her criteria for analysing and classifying her material. The fact that Mr. Cleanth Brooks³ can write a "brilliant essay"² on the implications of Spurgeon's analysis is a proof that this information regarding style may be potentially useful in the statement of the meaning of the text.

10. Although style, as defined here, is concerned with a much narrower field of enquiry, covering a substratum of linguistic execution, the insistence on uniform observation of the stratum involves the analysis of a given text at the levels of Phonology, Grammar and Lexis. An exhaustive analysis of all these would require extensive mechanical help. For the purposes of this study the level of phonology has been nearly completely ignored, the level of lexis is studied with the view to present an example of what type of statements could be made at this level, while there is the greatest concentration at the level of grammar. These decisions were governed by certain considerations.

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1. C. Spurgeon: Shakespeare's Imagery (Camb. 1935). There is no implication that we agree with her methods of analysis.
 2. C. Brooke-Rose: A Grammar of Metaphor (Secker and Warburg, p.8).
 3. Cleanth Brooks: The Naked Babe and the Cloak of Manliness.

10a. The texts selected for the present study are written, and though the written may be said approximately to have the implication of 'might have been spoken', there might follow certain problems attendant upon such an approach which it was better to avoid. Further since the literary sub-variety studied here is 'prose : fiction' we could afford to ignore the re-patterning¹ of certain phonological units more reasonably than would have been possible in the study of 'poetic texts'. In taking this decision, there is no implication that phonological patterns are irrelevant to the study of prose². In fact, generally, literary variety of language may prove to be one of the few varieties in which a repatterning³ of phonological patterns is a register-feature.

10b. In the framework of linguistic theory applied here, the theory relating to lexis is comparatively at a less advanced stage.⁴ Descriptive terms such as 'lexical item'⁵ 'lexical set', and 'Collocation' are hypothetical, awaiting more study to acquire full theoretical status⁶. Logically, the study of this level would require an initial theoretical study of lexis, which falls outside the scope of the present work.

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1. Such re-patterning¹ as may be discussed under alliteration, 'rhyme', onomatopoeia are more frequent and central to the style of poetic texts.
 2. Cf. R. Hasan: *The Linguistic Study of a Literary Text* (Dissertation for Diploma in Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh, 1961) where the selection of certain sound patterns in *Necessity's Child* (by Angus Wilson) is discussed.
 3. Advertisements and religious writings, to name two, are the other varieties in which this may be considered a register-feature.
 4. J.McH. Sinclair: *Beginning the Study of Lexis* (To be published in *Firth Memorial Volume*, Longmans Green, London).
 5. For a reference to the descriptive terms in the study of lexis see Firth (Papers) Halliday (Categories of the Theory of Grammar) and Sinclair (Ibid.)
 6. See Hjelmslev's: *Prolegomena to a Theory of Language* (IJAL, No. 7, 1953) for distinction between hypothesis and theory.

Therefore the selection of certain lexical patterns, alone, has been undertaken to exemplify the general nature of enquiries at this level.

10c. Grammar was selected as the level for comparatively more exhaustive study for two reasons:

i) The theory of grammar¹ employed here as a model is more developed and competent to handle patterns at this level,

ii) In traditional discussions of style the lexical item has more often been the focus of attention. From a purely experimental attitude to the description of style, the present study aims to show what may be said by concentrating on grammatical patterns alone, without going into details of their exponents.

10d. Uniformity of observation has been postulated as a necessary principle in the present approach to style. A text may be uniformly observed, through observation, utterance by utterance, of a valid sample of it. Whether any sample can be a valid representation of an entire population is a question much debated by linguists². Two parallel views

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: *Categories*, (Word, Vol. 17, no. 3, Dec. 1961).
 2. Thus Noam Chomsky and other linguists following his approach to linguistics do not regard any sample however large as being a valid representation of an entire population. Therefore any model of description derived from the observation of any amount of text appears to them "ad hoc". To quote Chomsky: "Modern Linguistics has been largely concerned with observational adequacy. In particular, this is true of post-Bloomfieldian American linguistics, and, apparently, of the modern school of Firth, with its emphasis on ad hoc character of linguistic description". (The Logical Basis of Linguistic Theory, Preprints of Papers, Ninth International Congress of Linguists, Camb., Mass., 1962). It is not clear how an "informant's language" is any more than a type of the sample of a language and why it is more dependable as a "check" (which to us appears to be another mode of observing the data) than large samples of spoken and/or written language. At least in the latter type of sample, the danger of idiolectal idiosyncracies and limitations - a danger highly inherent in "informant technique" - is largely overcome. Further it appears to us that Chomsky misrepresents the "modern school of Firth" in suggesting that it emphasizes "the ad hoc character of linguistic description".

taken by scientists in general upon this question are that: sampling may involve 'selection', and 'selection' may become subjective, as having a hypothesis in mind one may tend to select favourable data, ignoring the rest; furthermore, that no sample presents a faithful picture of the entire population.¹ The second view is that:

"if we select at random a sample of n data from an infinite normal population it is obvious that, in general the mean of the sample will not be the same as the mean of the whole population; if n is large, the two means may not differ very much if n is small they may²

Subscribing to the latter view, for grammatical analysis, only a random sample of the texts was studied here. Random sample is defined as such:

"that in selecting an individual from a population each individual in the population has the same chance."³

The concept of "large" is obviously relative to the entire population. Randomness was ensured by selecting every 4th page of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes and every 2nd of Free Fall⁴.

Alternatively, following Levin's⁵ example we might have concentrated only on deviants (or un/semi-grammaticality). The disadvantages of following such a technique are enumerated above;⁶ moreover a high frequency of deviation is not observed to occur in prose and we might have had very little to say about the texts, using Levin's technique.

1. Therefore it would appear that the 'informant's language' is just as inadequate a sample as a number of texts!
2. J. Topping: Errors of Observation and their treatment (Chap. 2, p.62,D2, Institute of Physics, The Physical Society Monographs for Students.)
3. J. Topping: Ibid.
4. Since Free Fall was a "smaller" text, therefore a "larger" proportion of it had to be selected. At the same time, this brought the total of clauses analysed for both texts to approximately the same number.
5. S.R. Levin: Op.Cit.
6. Cf. pages 12 -17 above.

10d.i The grammatical analysis of the sample was not 'exhaustive'; the analysis was carried down to the rank¹ of group only. The decision does not imply that word and morpheme are irrelevant to style; in fact, these are among the relevant units in the style of Ulysses and Finnegans Wake. The description of the grammar of texts under study could be made more delicate, but the aim of the present study is to exemplify the description of style, not to present exhaustive accounts. Alignments of some grammatical categories are discussed under Section III: Comparison. These are presented as an example of what may be said regarding re-patterning of patterns in "connected discourse"² in general, and in literature in particular.

10d.ii Random sampling for lexis presents various problems as we do not know how to measure the 'span'³ of collocation, or the density of lexical items in texts. Items have, therefore, been selected by taking into account other strata such as those of textual context. Its validity for discussion under style is to some extent, ensured by scrutinizing whether what we intuitively consider "alike" patterns are "alike" in linguistics.

11. Part of the value of the present approach to style lies in providing an axis for the comparison of the texts of various varieties in a language. It therefore follows that we must select a model of linguistics which has the greatest competence in handling texts of a large variety, using the same theories, methods and categories. We must avoid all models of description, whether linguistics or non-linguistic,⁴ which

1. See Section II, Chapter I below for ranks.

2. Cf. Z.S. Harris: *Language* Vol. 28, No.1, January and March, 1952.

3. See J.McH. Sinclair: *Ibid.*

4. See pp. 9 - iv, above.

will set up ad hoc categories to handle each individual text. One great weakness of the description of language in literary criticism is that what is said about one text has no relation to what is said about another, and very little to language as a whole. The model of linguistics applied here is the one directly based upon Firth's work in London, and in particular, as developed by M.A.K. Halliday and others in Edinburgh.

11a. Although the general theoretical framework for grammar is available in *Categories of the Theory of Grammar*, no published grammar of English derived from this theory is available in print. Therefore a section¹ is included here presenting the descriptive categories of the grammar of English for the relevant ranks of Sentence, Clause and Group. Beyond its immediate value in presenting the set of units and criteria for their identification, the section does not directly form a part of the study of style as such. Furthermore, the grammatical study of these texts suggested certain ideas² regarding the descriptive categories which may be found useful in the study of other texts. The statement of descriptive categories and the comparison of their occurrence in the texts forms the largest part of this study.

12. In conclusion, it is to be emphasized that the account presented here of the style of the texts is not only exemplificatory, but having not many³ counterpart studies in other registers, its immediate

1. See Section II below.

2. e.g. the delimitation of sentence boundaries and the concept of uni- and-multi-valent types (See Section II below).

3. The following studies, using the same theory to varying extents, have been made in some registers:

- i) C.C. Bowley: *Cohesion and the Paragraph: a textual analysis* (Dissertation for Diploma in General Linguistics, Edin., '62).
- ii) R.D. Huddleston: *Descriptive and Comparative Analysis of texts in French and English* (Ph.D. thesis, Edin., 1963).
- iii) G.N. Leech: *The Language of Commercial Television Advertisements*. (M.A. thesis, University of London, 1963).
- iv) Joan Maw: *Some Interesting Features in Written Instructions to Workmen* (Dissertation for Diploma in General Linguistics, Edin., '63).
- v) P.J. Seccombe: *Styles of English (within Obstetrics and Gynaecology)* (Dissertation for Diploma in Applied Linguistics, Edin., 1961).

value is, to that extent, limited. Statements regarding neither texts are to be taken as statements regarding their author's general style.

12a. The aims of this study can be stated as follows:

a) To indicate a new approach to the study of style (Section I, Chapter I).

b) To show how this approach to the study of style may form an integral important part of the study of literature, thus answering the literary critic's standard objection regarding the "uselessness" of linguistic analysis of literary texts (Section I, Chapter I).

c) To demonstrate through the partial analysis, description and comparison of the style of the two texts, how much and what kind of statements can be made within the scope of style as defined for the purposes of this study (Sections III and IV).

12b. It is not the aim of this work:

a) to present an exhaustive description and comparison of the two texts, or

b) to demonstrate the correlation of the stratum of style with any other strata in literary texts except indirectly as in the selection of lexical items.¹ It was no part of this study to make synthetic statements, nor were we concerned with stating the "expressive value" of individual linguistic items. Where we discuss 'value'² in linguistic selections, this 'value' is strictly determined by certain observable phenomenon such as frequency.

1. Or 'shift in style' See Section III, Chap. V below.

2. See Section III, Chap. V below - Cf. value of successive linking, or 'heavy modifier' etc.

12c. The plan of the study is as follows:

Section I : The definition of style; the place of style in literary studies; and the aims of the present study.

Section II : The Descriptive Categories of Grammar.

Section III : Comparison of grammatical patterns in the two texts.

Section IV : Lexis: and a comparison of some lexical patterns.

Section V : Conclusions.

SECTION: II.

CHAPTER IA - The Unit: Sentence.

1. The theory of grammar underlying the present description postulates four fundamental categories of the highest degree of abstraction. It is expected that the grammar of any language may be described exhaustively in terms of these categories: their relation to each other is the "same" no matter what language is under description, though the set of exponents for each differs from language to language. These categories are Unit, Structure, System and Class.

2. For English language the exponents of the category unit are:

X	Sentence	(=Sc)
	Clause	(=Kl)
	Group	(=gp)
	Word	(=wd)
Y	Morpheme	(=mphi)

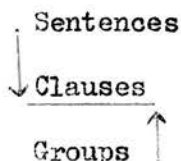
2a. The scale along which the Units are arranged is referred to as 'rank scale', X indicating the 'highest' and Y the 'lowest' rank. Units on the rank scale stand in an hierarchical taxonomy, therefore the structure of the higher unit is described in terms of the classes of units immediately below it. No direct structural relation between sentence and group or clause and word is recognised. A discussion of the structure of sentences involves a discussion of the class of clauses, that of clauses involves that of groups and so on. Since our analysis concentrates, within grammar on sentence and clause, the following pages present a discussion of sentences, clauses and groups. The descriptive categories discussed within this section are the descriptive categories of the grammar of English only.

3. Sentence is treated here as the 'highest' unit. If units form a taxonomic hierarchy, the description of any one unit may be presented in two ways.

i) In terms of the classes of the unit directly below, which operate as exponents of the element of the structure of the unit above e.g. clause described in terms of the group classes expounding the elements of its structure. Such statements provide us with "types" of the units whose structure is under consideration.

ii) In terms of the classes of the unit itself, established with reference to how these classes operate in the structure of the unit above, e.g. clauses in terms of clause classes expounding the elements of sentence-structure. Such statements provide us with "classes" of units.

3a. Clearly the highest and the lowest units are not amenable to both these approaches. The highest unit does not enter into the structure of any other unit (otherwise it would not be the highest) as the lowest unit has no structure (otherwise it would not be the lowest unit.) The description of sentence and morpheme, in English, would, therefore, be unidirectional. Our description has, consequently, no classes of sentences, only types. This is a limitation imposed by the postulated taxonomic relationship of units on rank scale.¹ When describing clauses it is possible to 'shunt' between sentence and group, so:



1. It is no solution to postulate a higher-than-sentence unit e.g. the paragraph. This merely means that we shall have only the Type-description of paragraphs, though obviously the gain to the description of sentences would, itself, be considerable if we can state both the classes of sentences by reference to how they operate in the structure of the paragraphs, and types of sentences by reference to how clauses operate in the structure of sentences, themselves.

The two routes of approach are not alternatives and a complete description must exploit both. Compare the above with the routes of approach to sentences as shown below, so:

Sentences

Clauses ↑

With the lowest unit only a downward arrow is possible.¹

4. With this approach to sentences, one very obvious distinction of type is that of

a) Simple Sentence (= S Sc)

b) Compound Sentence (= Cmpd Sc)

This type-distinction is not specific only to the sentence-rank.²

In the course of this discussion, the 'meaning' of 'compound' with reference to sentence-rank will be modified, though we may need to maintain both the unmarked use of compound (referring to the number of the units immediately below) and the marked one (with reference to particular grammatical patterns) as we suggest, below.

4a. Using full-stops in written and 'pauses' in spoken texts as an indication of sentence-boundary, the most generally stateable sentence-structures would be:

S Sc = One Kl. i.e. expounded by one Kl. only

Cmpd Sc = More than one Kls. i.e. expounded by two or
above Kl.³

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1. Items under focus are underlined and the ranks relevant to the description of the item are related to it by arrows.
 2. "One distinction that is often useful is between a member of a unit that consists of only one member of the unit next below and one that consists of more than one; the former may be called 'Simple', the latter 'Compound'..." (M.A.K. Halliday: 'Categories', 3.3, p.253).
 3. For abbreviations consult p. 38 and 40 above.

Obviously the value of such a statement is rather limited and a series of relevant questions can be asked e.g. what is the value of 'sequence' in sentence-structure? Can all clauses expound both simple and compound sentences? If not, is there any class of clause which is common to both, or specific only to one type? The detail in which such and other relevant questions can be answered determines the precision and particularity of statements regarding potential sentence-structures in English.

4b. Sentence like word has been defined by reference to orthographic criteria. According to Cobbett:

"A sentence means any portions of words (we would substitute 'portions of language') which are divided from the rest by a single dot."¹

So, if, for example, the text under analysis was Faulkner's *Requiem for a Nun*, many sentences would stretch across graphic paragraphs, since Faulkner quite frequently uses semicolons (;) to punctuate a paragraph. Such a situation is unavoidable if the defining criteria are independent of grammatical considerations.

4c. However the orthographic criterion suffers from a more serious limitation, that it may not be made use of in delimiting sentences in spoken texts. It is desirable that some criteria for sentence delimitation should be found which are consistently applicable both to the written and the spoken manifestations of the 'same' text. In spoken texts the criterion often employed for the delimitation of sentences is that by reference to speakers. Any utterance by any one person preceded and followed by 'silence' is one sentence. Harris refuting this suggestion comments that an utterance is:

1. Quoted by B.M.H. Strang: *Modern English structure* P.62 §61 (Published by E. Arnold, London). Comments within brackets are ours.

"in general not identical with the sentence (as that word is commonly used) since a great many utterances in English for example consist of single words, phrases, 'incomplete sentences' etc. Many utterances are composed of parts which are linguistically equivalent to whole utterances occurring elsewhere."¹

While Harris' main point regarding unidentifiability of a sentence and an utterance must be accepted, the reasons he gives require scrutiny. First of all, if we are concerned with delimiting the sentence it is not enough to appeal to the concept of 'the sentence (as that word is commonly used)'. In the theoretical framework employed in the present study, "if the description is textual, every item of the text is accounted for at all ranks".² Therefore Harris' objection that "great many utterances consist of single words, phrases, incomplete sentences etc." is, by implication, dismissed. There is no text, whether graphic or phonic, which is not composed of at least one sentence.³ As far as "words" and "phrases" are concerned, through their respective roles in the structures of units immediately above, they may ultimately be relatable to a simple sentence, consisting of one clause, consisting of one group, consisting of one word, consisting of one morpheme, e.g. "Boy!", "God", "That", "Yes", and so on.

Harris' last objection is the only objection that we consider valid. An utterance cannot be identified with a sentence because it does not possess the required qualification of the exponent of a unit. The patterns that an utterance does and potentially may carry, are so varied, like the patterns within stretches of language between two full-stops, that any

1. Z.S. Harris: Structural Linguistics (Paperback p.14, 2.4).

2. M.A.K. Halliday: 'Categories.'

3. Interrupted sentences (units in general) are no exception. Their progress is 'arrested' on time dimension but they are legitimate special exponents of the unit in question.

generalized statement of these would be almost impossible. Both the orthographic and 'phonic' definitions are to be avoided because they do not contribute to a clear and simple statement.

4d. Unit is a pattern-carrier. If sentence is a unit in grammar, it must have a certain set of grammatical patterns to select from. Grammatical patterns, being primarily autonomously determined, may not necessarily be in agreement with orthographic rules. On the other hand, use can be made of phonological patterns in describing sentence-patterns. Some use has been made of phonology in determining sentence-boundaries.¹ Again, in the words of Harris:

"Sentences of particular types may be characterized as those segments of speech (or writing) over which certain intonations occur or within which certain structures occur. (A particular structure is a particular combination of classes of elements)...."²

We underline the word "or" in the above quotation, since there does not appear to be a choice between either structure or intonation; both may be relevant and certainly both co-occur in speech. Statements of type and structure fall within grammar; however, because certain sentence-structures normally co-occur with certain intonation patterns, there is an exponential relationship between these patterns and structures.³ Both sentences below are said with the same intonation pattern on Tonge Group 1.

i) I'll come tomorrow. (Simple)

ii) I think that I'll come tomorrow. (Compound)

Here Tone Group 1, extending over one clause, co-occurs with a simple

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1. e.g. Consider the concept of 'External open juncture'. See Bloch and Trager: Outline of Linguistic Analysis (Published by Linguistic Soc. of America, Waverly Press, p.35 and 47).
 2. Z.S. Harris: String Analysis of Sentence Structure (Mouton Papers on Formal Linguistics No. 1, p.1.)
 3. For a detailed account of the exponence relation of phonology to grammar see M.A.K. Halliday: Intonation Systems in English (Patterns of Language, Longmans, Intonation in English Grammar (TPS, 1963), The Tones of English (Arch. L. 15, 1963). All phonological terms of description here are borrowed from these articles.

sentence and Tone Group 1 extending over more than one clauses co-occurs with a compound sentence. This information can be exploited where a string of clauses follows which is capable of combining in more than one way. This point may be illustrated by the following example. Supposing that the stretch below is part of a spoken text:

..... i'll come tomorrow i think he will have
finished it by then

If the first two clauses are said on Tone Group 1 then we have two sentences as follows:

- i) i'll come tomorrow i think
- ii) he will have finished it by then

On the other hand if the first clause above is said on Tone Group 1, and the rest on a fresh Tone Group then the sentence-boundaries would be as below:

- i) i'll come tomorrow
- ii) i think he will have finished it by then.

5. The presence or absence of a particular Tone Group by itself does not argue for one particular type of sentence. As said before type is determined by reference to grammatical criteria. Thus we may say that there are certain classes of clauses which may be considered as forming one sentence, irrespective of orthographic or phonological criteria, primarily. Consider the clauses below:

- i) I think that I'll come tomorrow.
- ii) I think I'll come tomorrow.

Both sentences above, may be regarded as grammatically compound sentences, because the clauses in these sentences stand in a particular relationship to each other. So we may postulate that within the grammatically

compound sentence there are at least two or more elements of structure. Of these at least one (or more) element must 'demand' the presence of another element e.g. the clause 'that I'll come tomorrow' demands another clause of a specific class in order to expound a complete sentence. Moreover, each grammatical sentence must have only one element, the exponent clause of which does not presuppose the presence of any clauses in the same sentence. These two primary elements of sentence-structure may respectively be called the "presupposing" and the "non-presupposing" elements. Since the latter is "free" of demanding the presence of another element, we shall symbolize it by F; the presupposing element being restricted by its need for one F element within the same sentence,¹ is bound to presuppose: we shall symbolize this element by B. Then the concept of a grammatically compound sentence may be made more rigorous and not dependent on the consideration of the number of clauses as such. A compound sentence is that which consists of one F element and one or more than one B elements. This definition is independent of orthography, and two F elements not punctuated by a stop are not to be regarded as one compound grammatical sentence.

5a. More particular statements about grammatical compound sentences can be made with reference to the subclasses expounding the primary elements F and B, and their possible combinations.² But once the notion of presupposition between the elements of sentence-structure is made central to the consideration of sentences, the ground for 'formal' sentence-delimitation is prepared. Contrasts between secondary structures of compound sentences may be carried by secondary elements. At times, it

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1. There are exceptions to this rule which can be stated generally by reference to the entire subclasses.
 2. Some of these are discussed under Chapter IB; Presupposition below, see pp 50-64.

may be necessary to determine a secondary element by reference to the intonation pattern, though the element qua element gains its status by entering in a structure.

"The contrasts in meaning which are carried by intonation in English can be regarded as finite, as choices from among a limited number of possibilities while there is not just one set of choices but a number of them; so that the use of a given pattern, such as a particular pitch contour, will mean one thing under certain circumstances and another thing under other circumstances; moreover these circumstances are definable in such a way that we can say in a given instance which of its possible meanings the contrast in question will have"¹

The systemic nature of such a contrast is particularly emphasized here. Phonology is not being used directly to define sentence-boundary; certain patterns of phonology are exponentially correlated to certain structures, and only through these structures are they relevant to sentence delimitation. If a direct relationship is established between a sentence and intonation patterns, the result may be unsatisfactory. To quote Hockett, as an example:

"In English the independence of a grammatical form from those that precede and follow, if any, is often shown by intonation. An intonation which ends with / 31 ↓ / signals independence. Thus if one says:

²It's ³ten o'³clock¹ ↓ ²I want to go³ home¹ ↓

one has produced two sentences in immediate succession. But if one uses some other intonation on the first half then the parts are tied together into a single sentence just as they would be if one inserted and or but between them"²

If the above view is accepted, then presumably if we said

It's ten oclock

on what is called a 'question intonation' and followed it up immediately by

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: Intonation Systems in English. For meaning, see Firth: Modes of Meaning (Papers) mainly.
 2. C.F. Hockett: A Course in Modern Linguistics (Chapter 23, 23.1, p.149, McMillan, New York, '58).

I want to go home

these would 'be tied together into a single statement'. This would obviously pose other problems. No wonder Hockett has to modify the above statement as follows:

"Intonation is not always an unambiguous guide.

Thus ²if you ²like²↓and ²Are you² going² ↓

have the same intonation, but the first would often be followed by more material in the same sentence whereas the second would often be followed by silence."¹

It is hardly necessary to point out the inconsistencies of these statements, but notice in particular that if an "intonation with /31↓/ signals independence", so does /22↓/ and many others, depending on the structural function of the items. It is for this reason that we prefer to make separate statements about phonological and grammatical patterns, and correlate these where a high probability of co-occurrence may be discovered.

5b. The recommended mode of delimiting the extent of the grammatical unit sentence by reference to structure alone provides us with a criterion which is capable of yielding a consistent analysis of both written and spoken text. In spoken texts we have a simultaneous phonological indication of structure and the majority of sentences can be delimited without any doubt. In written material we fall back upon the 'implication' of the phonological pattern for sentence delimitation, only where the structure is ambiguous. However, cases of genuine ambiguity of sentence-structure are not solved by reference to either their transformational history, or by a statement of all the alternative structural values. The ambiguity itself

1. Ibid.

is solved by reference to co-text¹ alone; after this resolution, we can definitely state the 'instantial' structural value of the items in question either in terms of their transformational history or in terms of their structural values according to whichever model we choose to employ.² The importance of co-text in the written material is probably greater than in the spoken since written material inevitably lacks one parameter of information. Whatever phonological pattern we assign to a written item is dependent upon how we have contextualized the item in the first place.

5c. An orthographic sentence and a grammatical sentence will be quite frequently at variance from each other. What we have called element B of sentence-structure, expounded by the class of clause which presupposes, may sometimes be found to constitute the entire orthographic sentence. Grammatical sentence cannot consist of only one (or more than one) presupposing element, nor can it have more than one non-presupposing element in it. In a written text we may have:

"I deserved the birch. And I got it".

This would be an instance of two orthographic sentences, but only one grammatical sentence, because the second 'And I got it' is an instance of a presupposing clause not able to stand on its own.³ On the other hand, consider:

"He did not care to make technicians of us, he wanted us to understand the world around us."

(F.F., p.213)

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1. R.M.W. Dixon: *Linguistic Sciences and Logic*. The Hague: Mouton (Janua Linguarum 28, 1963).
 2. It is, therefore, not TG that resolves the ambiguity as claimed (Cf. N. Chomsky in *Preprints of Papers, IX International Congress of Linguists, Camb., Mass., 1962*), though we agree it is a measure of the success of a grammar if it can provide different descriptions for different solutions.
 3. For a detailed discussion of presupposing and non-presupposing clauses see below pp. 50-64

Here we have an example of one orthographic sentence which can be broken into two grammatical sentences, the boundary coinciding with the comma. Such variance is not necessarily a disadvantage, and is not specific only to the sentence rank. What, after all, is the value of '- ough' in English orthography? Further it is envisaged that the measure of variance between the grammatical and the orthographic sentence may be one of the parameters for stylistic variation.¹

5d. In making presupposition central to the definition of sentences we are adding to the power and rigour of our description of various sentence types. It is all the more regretted, therefore, that the boundary of sentences in the corpus under study was determined on graphic criteria, mainly. The discrepancy between the orthographic and grammatical sentence units was not clear to us before. As a direct result of the present analysis and its limitations, it was realized that there is a need to define sentences with reference to grammatical criteria, alone. Although the analysis itself recognises orthographic sentence boundaries, effort has been made to present as much information as possible about the grammatical sentences.² The presupposition relationship is in general brought out clearly, by for example, noting all instances of sentence-initial linked presupposing clauses. In fact, the main differences between the graphic and grammatical sentences centre round the linked presupposing, or the non-presupposing clauses.

The following chapter elaborates the relevance of presupposition to sentence-structure; further it provides the basis of the secondary classification of clauses.

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1. See Appendix 1 presenting two accounts of orthographic and grammatical sentences from the same page of one of the texts.
 2. See Comparison, Section III.

CHAPTER IB: Presupposition.

1. The notion of a demand relation between elements of structure is not limited to the rank of sentence alone, though the details of these demands vary from rank to rank and structure to structure. The term "Presupposition" refers here exclusively to the demand relations between elements of sentence-structure. Presupposition is primarily unidirectional: the element B demands the presence of an F in the same sentence,¹ but not vice versa. The normal² sequence for these elements is F B; other sequences are a-normal.²

2. Element B is potentially recursive³ therefore sentences may have recursive structures. These may be subdivided into two kinds of structures:

i) Recursive structure where primarily sequence does not determine the presupposed - presupposing relationship between elements. This is called 'dependence recursion'.

ii) Recursive structure where sequence primarily determines the presupposed — presupposing relationship. This is called 'linking recursion'.

2a. Therefore the primary element B is subdivided into two secondary elements by reference to what type of recursive structure it may enter into. The choices are between a linked presupposing element and a dependent presupposing element, forming the two terms of the "system of presupposition". The linked element is symbolized here by &⁴ and the

1. Sentence for the purposes of this Chapter is "grammatical sentence" unless otherwise stated.

2. For the purposes of this study normal and a-normal are determined by frequency, normal being more frequent.

3. M.A.K. Halliday: Class in Relation to the Axes of Chain and Choice (Linguistics 2, Dec. 1963, Mouton & Co.) The article is referred to hereafter in footnotes as 'Class'.

4. Symbol & is to be modified later with reference to the scale of depth.

dependent by B^1 . In order for a sentence-structure to be either dependent or linked recursive, there should be at least two elements of either & or B class, for more delicately the nature of demand relations of the last 2 elements varies in the structure $F B \& B^2$.

2b. Sentence-structures combine both dependence and linking recursion, within the same structure. The concept of the "scale of depth"³ is set up to measure the progression of recursive elements. In the present study this scale is considered specific to dependent elements, and measures the progression of linked elements only indirectly and only in relation to the depth of dependence.⁴

3. The element F is expounded by the clause class: Non-presupposing. This class is referred to traditionally as 'free' or 'independent',⁵ presumably to reflect its ability to expound simple-sentences. Sometimes, it is confused with the unit sentence, thus leading to some confusion when compound sentences are described.⁶

3a. The theoretical question whether the element F is the same element in simple and compound sentences is solved here by reference to class, since primarily these elements are class-determined.⁷ The class

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1. Notice that the primary element is symbolized as B, while the secondary element dependent is written as B (without underlining).
 2. See the discussion of elements &B and B below.
 3. M.A.K. Halliday: 'Class'.
 4. At this point we differ from the use of depth scale as in 'Class' (Op.Cit.). Dependence and linking are both considered recursive but the scale of depth measures dependence alone, for reasons stated below (see page 58, 4c.)
 5. E.A. Nida: A synopsis of English Syntax (Publication of SIL University of Oklahoma, 1960; p.40). We adopt this term here to get rid of the cumbersome term: 'non-presupposing'.
 6. O. Jespersen: The Philosophy of Grammar (Allen & Unwin). There appears a further confusion here between an individual linguistic item and its various exponence-relations.
 7. For the use of "Class-determined" see M.A.K. Halliday 'Class'.



operating at F in simple sentences is the same¹ as the one operating at F element in compound sentences. Exceptions capable of operating at F either only in simple sentences or in compound sentences can be handled by statements of high generality referring to an entire sub-class.

3b. Systemic choices at the element F are referable to the Mood System, and the secondary clause Classes exponent of the secondary F element are enumerated below. These clause classes are exponentially related to certain structures as shown in the brackets, opposite each secondary clause class:

A	Affirmative	= Aff.	(exponent-STR = SP (C,A). ²)
	Interrogative	= Int.	(" " = P((S)) (C,A)?)
	Imperative	= Imp.	(" " = \nexists P (C,A)!)
	Moodless	= M'less	(" " = \nexists S+C,A)

3c. Secondary classes of the independent clause class are relevant to the contextual function of a sentence. Sentence "does the language work in situations"³ and therefore "offers itself as a unit for contextual statement".³ Sentence-functions are determined generally on the basis of some of their operative (or functional) values. Thus a sentence requiring a response is a 'question', what it requires is an 'answer'. If it is independent of the preceding and following comments with respect to question-answer relationship, it may be a 'statement'. If it is calculated to get someone to do something, its function is 'command', or it may be a brief instantaneous 'comment' which may be

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1. Always provided we regard 'same-ness' as a matter of degree.
 2. () implies items within brackets are not crucial to the point being made; (()) = The exponent of the element within such brackets is included within the item exponent of the preceding element; \nexists implies there cannot be an S element in an exponent of a M'less Clause. For details of the description of these see Chapter IIB below.
 3. M.A.K. Halliday: Categories (p.252).

called 'Exclamation'.¹

3c.i There is a high degree of co-occurrence between these five sentence-functions and the four independent secondary clause classes from the Mood System. The habitual correlation of these is shown below:²

Mood System		Sc-Functions	
Clause Classes	Exponent STR	Terms	Exponent item
1. Affirmative.	SP (C,A).	1. Statement (=Stmt)	He did
2. Interrogative.	P((S))(C,A)?	2. Question (=Q)	Did he?
3. Imperative.	\$/ P (C,A)!	3. Command (=Cmd)	Don't!
		4. Answer (=Ans)	This one.
4. Moodless	/\$ S+C, A.	5. Exclamation(=Excl)	Ouch!

3c.ii Of clause classes from Presupposition System, the dependent class is entirely irrelevant to sentence-function.³ Among linked clauses that subclass which presupposes an F element alone is relevant to sentence-function. The point may be illustrated by the following sentences:

- i) ///"If they chivvied him, // he would raise the red herring of his projected work on England under Edward the Confessor."///
 Sc-STR = B F; Sc-function = Stmt. (A-S.A., p.16)

Compare the above with:

- ii) ///Had they chivvied him // he would have raised the red herring.....Confessor.///
 Sc-STR = B F; Sc-function = Stmt.

The clause exponent of B in ii) above has a structure which is primarily associated with the interrogative clause class. But since the

1. This should be regarded as a fluid and oversimplified statement; with greater 'economy of focus' sentence functions may be further and more particularly subdivided e.g. command into 'order' and 'request'.
2. There obviously cannot be a one-to-one correspondence between the two.
3. Sentence-function and contextual functions are not the same things. By sentence-function are meant only the five categories detailed above. There is no implication that a dependent clause is irrelevant to the "meaning" of a sentence, or that it has no contextual function.

clause is operating at B and therefore not entering in mood-choices, the presence of that structure by itself does not affect the sentence-function in any way. On the other hand, notice the change in sentence-function in the following version, where F is expounded by an interrogative clause:

///If they chivvied him, // would he raise the red
herring Confessor?///
Sc-STR = B F; Sc-function = Qn.

In contrast to the above, notice the relevance of a linked presupposing clause to sentence-function in the following item where the linked clauses presupposes an F element:

- i) ///"The fist and the glory were mine; // but I was
his fool his clay."///
Sc-STR = F &; Sc-function = Stmt (F.F., p.49)
- ii) ///The fist and the glory were mine; // but was I
his fool, his clay?///
Sc-STR = F &; Sc-function = Qn.

The last mentioned sentence has the function of question because it may require an 'answer'. Statement is observed to be the most frequent sentence-function; so of the five sentence-function terms this is considered to be the 'unmarked' one, while the others are marked. The most general assignment of sentence-function is determined by the marked term, if it is present in an item.¹

4. If we postulate that dependent and linked clause classes form terms of a system, we automatically postulate an "either/or" relationship between the two classes. How then do we account for the last clause of the following sentence which superficially appears to be both dependent and linked:

1. This point is further elaborated in 6a below. See page 63 of this chapter.

///"I think // we had a kind of faith // that
the policeman would be gone // and that
nothing would embarrassus".///

(F.F., p.45)

Before discussing the relevant problem here we must explore the nature of dependence and linking.

4a. The scale of depth is directly specific to dependent recursion. Elements are ranged upon this scale according to "where" they presuppose. This may be made clear by examples.

- i) ///"Even when the Twins Fred and Joe, ((who dealt so deviously in scrap.....)) were fetched away by two giraffe-like policemen // the drama dwindled down into defeat."///

Sc-STR¹: B((C))F (F.F., p.21)

- ii) ///"Having made the decision to part with her, // his voice took on a sneering note // that surprised himself!"///

Sc-STR : B_→F_←B (A-S.A., p.61)

- iii) ///"He had shelved the problem of John's private life, // convinced // that his intervention would be as fruitless // as it would be resented."///

Sc-STR : F_←B_←C_←D (A-S.A., p.189)

Here B is to F as C is to B, as D is to C, in their presupposition relations. The examples indicate how sequence does not determine the value of elements, and how the same place on depth scale may be selected more than once. Notice also that while the presupposition is not dependent on sequence, the order of progression of presupposition itself cannot be broken; that is, we cannot omit B in structure B((C))F or B/C in structure F_←B_←C_←D. Moreover, the examples illustrate how the same element may be presupposed more than once,² how the presupposing element itself may be presupposed,³ and how no element may presuppose more than once.

-
1. The arrows indicate the presupposed element.
 2. Example (ii) above.
 3. This is the basis of 'recursive structures'.

4b. The linked clause has traditionally been called the 'co-ordinate clause',¹. The general relation of co-ordination is not limited to the elements of sentence structure alone. But like demand, the details of linking vary from rank to rank. The particular contrast between co-ordination and subordination, for example, is a feature most common to sentence structure. This fact is often ignored. So to quote Bloomfield²:

"Endocentric constructions are of two kinds, co-ordinative (or serial) and subordinative (or attributive). In the former type, the resultant phrase belongs to the same form class as two or more of the constituents. Thus the phrase boys and girls belongs to the same form class as the constituents boys, girls; these constituents are the members of the co-ordination and the other constituent is the co-ordinator There may be minor differences of formclass between the resultant phrase and the members; thus Bill and John is plural, while the members are each singular."

Bloomfield's use³ of "form-class" suggests that the term refers to a grouping of items alike in their own morphology, without prejudice to their syntactic value. 'Sculptor' and 'painter' belong to different form-classes⁴, since 'sculptor' may take suffix '-ess', but 'painter' may not. With such a definition of form class, Bloomfield's description of co-ordination is relevant most generally to linking between words, less to groups and very little to clauses. Even at Group rank, his description is inadequate for handling such cases as the following.

(John) very hesitant and not wishing to commit himself
(remained silent).

1. O.E.D. entry under 'co-ordinate' reads:

"Of the same order; equal in rank, degree or importance (with); opposed to subordinate. In grammar used specially of the clauses of a compound sentence".

2. L. Bloomfield: Language (Chap. 12 p.195) see also Curme: Syntax (Chap. 9, Classes of Sentences pp 161-173).

3. Bloomfield: Op.Cit.

4. Op.Cit. p.165.

Quite clearly the co-ordinates on either side of 'and' are not from the same form-class. On the other hand where 'and' can occur between two members of the same form class, there can also occur a certain class of adjuncts¹ which Bloomfield rightly does not recognise as co-ordinator.

Thus compare:

I deserved the birch and I got it.

I deserved the birch when I got it.

Since the above approach is useful neither in describing the nature of the co-ordinate, nor that of the co-ordinator, we offer an alternative one below, for linking at² sentence-rank.

4c. In contrast to the dependent elements of sentence structure sequence is primarily relevant to a linked element to the extent that a linked element may not precede its presupposed element.³ Where there is linking recursion, the statement of the sequence of linked elements subsumes the statement of presupposition relation, as well. Thus consider:

///"They reinforced the reality of physical life //
and they destroyed the possibility of anything
else; // and they made physical life not only
three times real but contemptible."///

Sc-STR = F &₁ &₂ (F.F., p.123)

Here &₁ presupposes F and &₂ presupposes &₁. But if the sentence was rewritten so that it read as follows, the presupposition relationship between items will change:

1. For 'adjuncts' see Chapter IIB p.81-83 (2a.i,2f) and the Adverbial Group (Chapter IIIB) below.
2. A difference must be recognized here between "at" and "between"; linking at sentence-rank involves linking between clauses, linking at clause-rank involves linking between groups and so on to, theoretically, the lowest Unit.
3. The exception to this rule is "mutually linked clause". See Chapter IID of this section, p.162 below.

///They reinforced the reality of physical life //
 and they made physical life not only three times
 real but contemptible; // and they destroyed the
 possibility of anything else.///

Sc-STR = F &₁ &₂

From this follows the fact that unlike dependence recursion, in linking recursion the order of the progression of presupposition itself can be broken¹, i.e., in the above example element &₁ may be omitted, without making the sentence meaningless, just as in example ii) above on page 55 one of the elements B may be omitted without making the sentence meaningless. In other words, the successive selection of linked elements is like the repeated selection of the same place on the scale of depth of dependence. Neither involves a further move on this scale; For this reason, the scale of depth is not relevant to linking recursion directly, but only through its presupposed element. More particularly the linked clause is considered to acquire the same place on depth scale as that of the presupposed. In order to show such relationship clearly, we symbolize the linked element by & followed by the status of the element it presupposes. Thus the sentence-structure for the example on p. 57 and 58 would be F &F &F. In this respect then "co-ordinates" at sentence-rank have the "same" status: this is a logical corollary of the fact that in linking presupposition the status of the presupposed determines the status of the presupposing clause.

4d. It is however necessary to emphasize that a linked element at place B, symbolized as &B is not a dependent element as such, and that we cannot have a complete sentence in English the structure of which may be

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1. This is a statement at the primary degree of delicacy. A sub-type of the linked clauses is restricted both as to "sequence" and "omission". E.G. clauses with the linking items "but", "so" or "therefore" do not easily change sequence and hence their presupposed may not be omitted.

stated as F &B. A &B element has no direct relationship to an F element; further a &B element is not a dependent element as is C. A &B has a place on depth scale by courtesy of linked presupposition and if it was to be recognized as a dependent element we would have to account for the differences of behaviour between C and &B or &C and D. However, the question remains how we account for the last clause of the following sentence, also quoted above on p. 55 :

///"I think // we had a kind of faith // that the
policeman would be gone // and that nothing would
embarrass us."///

Sc-STR = F B C &C (F.F., p.45)

The presence of "that" in the last clause is often treated as evidence that the clause must be an exponent of a dependent element. This, however, is a wrong premise, since in order to expound element &B, the presence of "that" class of adjunct in the clause is not crucial. Consider the following in contrast to the above:

///"I think // we had a kind of faith // that the
policeman would be gone // and nothing would
embarrass us."///

Sc-STR = F B C &C

It is not primarily the type of the linked clause that determines whether the clause will be &B or &F: it is the presupposition relation that determines this factor. The syntactic function of 'and nothing us' in the above sentence is the same as that of 'and that nothing us', though it must be recognized that the exponential potentialities of the latter are more restricted than those of the former. One of the functions of "and that" type of clause is to expound a linked element presupposing a dependent element.

5. To sum up, each time there is a move, e.g., from F, the choice

is between B or &F; if another clause is selected in the same sentence it must either contribute to dependent recursion or to linking. Whenever a linked element is selected, logically, progression on the scale of depth is arrested since no clause may be both linked and dependent. Sentence structure is a combination of both the selection of dependence recursion, and of linking (whether recursive or non-recursive). To state the potentialities of sentence structure we may have to present a very generalized picture such as:

$$F(\&F....n) \quad B(\&B....n) \quad C(\&C....n) \quad D(\&D....n).....n$$

At each place on depth scale there is the choice of initiating a linking recursion, after which the dependence may take over normally as in F BC....n. The above schematic structure does not indicate the further complexities introduced by the features of "inclusion" and "interruption". A linked clause itself may not be included but where a move in dependence is taking place after a linked element, it is quite frequent for the dependent clause to be included within a linked clause. Consider the following as an example:

///"In all that time he had thought and spoken a lot of drink and women and of money, especially of money. // But ((since he ceased to utter his thoughts,)) his daughter had decided // that he thought only of horses."///

$$Sc-STK^1 = F \quad \&F((B))B. \quad (A-S.A., p.76)$$

"Interruption" is the occurrence of clauses between the linked clause and its presupposed, such that the "interrupting" clauses are not directly presupposed by the linked element. Such interruption is common to &F more often than to the elements &B. The following presents an example of such interruption:

-
1. Notice that we are discussing grammatically compound sentences and ignoring orthographic boundaries.

///
 ///"It would shatter Ma into wakefulness // when
 she had to go out charring in the early dark //
 and my sleeping ears would note the noise // and
 dream on."///
 Sc-STR = $\underbrace{F \ B \ \&F \ \&F}_{\leftarrow}$

(F.F., p.25)

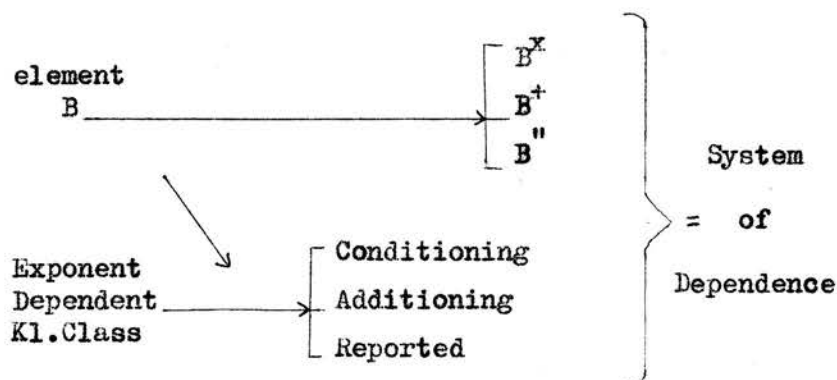
Sweet¹ uses the terms 'co-complex' and 'sub-complex' to refer to sentences with elements in relation through linking and through dependence, respectively. Such "pure" relations are hypothetical. A sentence is normally observed to be a complex unit, with 'co- and sub-complexes' within its structure. In the present study we use co-complex to refer to a set of linked elements with their presupposed e.g. F and $\&F \ \&F$ from the above example and sub-complex to refer to the set of dependent recursive elements related to F . The interrupting clauses which can logically be only the exponents of dependent elements, are specific only to what precedes the linked element. Although dependent clauses are primarily free of restrictions on sequence, no dependent clause presupposing a linked element may precede the presupposed linked element. So B in the example of the structure $\underbrace{F \ B \ \&F \ \&F}_{\leftarrow}$ is specific to F and cannot be presupposing $\&F \ \&F$ elements. Similarly any dependent element following an $\&F$ element are specific to this $\&F$ element and not to the presupposed F . So in the example of the structure $\underbrace{F \ \&F \ ((B))B}_{\leftarrow}$, the $((B))B$ elements are directly related to $\&F$ and not to F . However, a more delicate analysis may show more clearly whether the relationship may be expressed as:

$$F \left\{ \&F \left\{ ((B)) B \right\} \right\} \quad \text{or as} \quad \left\{ F \ \&F \left\{ ((B)) B \right\} \right\}$$

Such delicate statements will depend upon the instantial sets of relationships, and derive their validity largely from context.

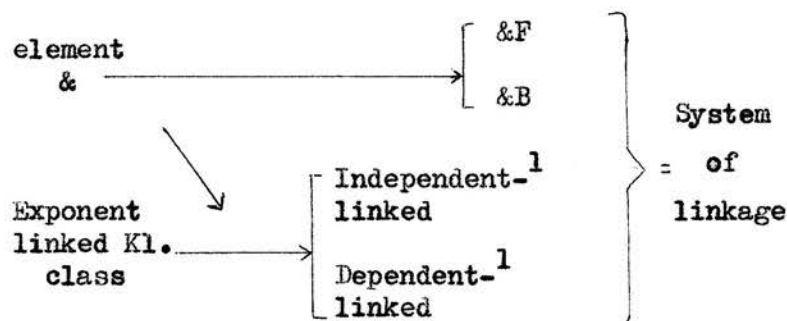
1. Henry Sweet: New English Grammar (Sentences 465, p.162. The Clarendon Press).

6. The above presents a brief account of the complex relations of presupposition within grammatical compound sentences. The secondary elements "dependent" and "linked" may further be subdivided as follows.



These secondary elements and their exponent secondary clause classes are discussed in detail in the next Chapters.

The sub-classification of element & is dependent upon which element it presupposes - F or one of the B. The picture may be presented as below:



The &F enjoys a greater degree of freedom than does the &B; thus as far as the choices of Mood System are concerned in a clause exponent of &F an individual selection of a term from the system is permitted, as if the &F had the status F. In contrast, &B clause is not permitted to select individually from the system of Dependence, and is said to have the same secondary choice status as its presupposed clause has. The total inventory of the secondary elements of sentence structure may be presented as follows:

1. A linked clause presupposing an Independent element and a linked clause presupposing a dependent element, respectively.

F		&	B
F.	&F.	&B ^x	B ^x
F?	&F?	&B ⁺	B ⁺
F!	&F!	&B ["]	B ["]
F-	&F-		

Each of these elements has a corresponding class of clause members of which are capable of acting as exponent of the element in question.¹

6a. A grammatically compound sentence is an arrangement of one F and other presupposing elements which are ultimately related to F either directly (as B or &F) or indirectly (as &B or C) in permitted sequences. Theoretically there can be any number of recursive &F elements in a sentence. This poses a problem in the assignment of sentence-function², since each &F is capable of selecting a separate term from Mood system.³ Sentence being the unit that offers itself for contextual statement, there is a temptation to approach it entirely contextually; so that it would seem reasonable to suggest that each sentence should consist of an F or &F together with their own sub-complexes, thus ensuring that there will be only one sentence-function within one sentence. The disadvantage of such a solution would be to obscure the presupposition relations and to prohibit the recognition of recursive linking of &F elements, within the same sentence. Besides, if we define &F by reference to F, then the recognition of element &F in the absence of F would be an anachronism, apart from the fact that linking is primarily an intra-sentence relation, since it may occur at any place on the scale

1. See tables and diagrammatic representations above on pp. 62.

2. Cf. 3c.ii above on p. 53-54.

3. Ibid.

of depth. The concept of marked and unmarked sentence-functions¹ provides some help in solving this problem: we may for instance say that the sentence-function of an item is 'statement' unless a marked sentence-function is carried by an element F or &F. In practice² it is not common to find a grammatical compound sentence which carries more than one marked sentence-function, but allowance should be made for such an occurrence. It, therefore, seems best to suggest that a grammatical compound sentence may have as many sentence-functions as there are F or &F elements in it. The implication that it is not the sentence as such but the F or &F elements which determine sentence-functions poses no problem in description, and is certainly an observation the validity of which may be proved by renewal of connection with the data. Sentence would still be the unit regarded as carrying sentence-functions - with the difference that it may potentially carry more than one sentence-functions.

The secondary classes of clauses corresponding to each of the secondary elements of sentence structure are discussed in the next chapter. In addition to these classes, further classifications of a more general nature are also considered in a later chapter.

1. Cf. p. 54 above.

2. In the present text there was no example of a grammatical compound sentence carrying more than one marked sentence-function.

CHAPTER IIA : Class, Type and Rankshift.

1. "Class" is one of the four fundamental categories of the theory of grammar¹. A class of a unit consists of those items which are potentially capable of expounding the same element in the structure of the unit above.

1a. Another grouping of items may be made with reference to the structure of the members of the units themselves. A list of items grouped together on the basis of the similarity of their own structure is referred to as type.

2. If it was the case that all items member of a particular class, were also members of a particular type only, then statements about one would subsume those about the other. However, such clearcut and simple patterning is seldom observed to exist in language. Take for example the sentence quoted earlier:

- i) I think I'll come. (Sc-STR = F B.)
 and ii) I'll come. (Sc-STR = F.)

It is clear that both "I'll come" (i) and "I'll come" (ii) belong to the same type, since they have an identical structure. It is also clear the same 'type' may belong to or expound more than one class as in the above example. Such types are called "multivalent type"² (or item), while those types members of which are also the members of only one class are called "univalent type"². The latter are rare; in English the most "univalent type" is a type of the unit: 'verbal group'. Type (or morphological) considerations are irrelevant to class-classification³ of

1. See M.A.K. Halliday: 'Categories' and also 'Class'.

2. These names were suggested by Professor McIntosh.

3. As distinct from type-classification.

items. Where we have a highly univalent type as in the verbal groups there is a danger of forgetting that the members of the class are grouped together into the same class because of having the same syntactic value and not because of certain morphological similarities.

2a. Where, as in the example above of clauses, the syntactic function of units is quite clearly different while their type-classification is the same, we are faced with a problem of how to describe such patterns. The choice is not between which kind of likeness to describe or give priority to, but how to describe maximally, faithfulness and efficiency presupposed. The logical solution would seem to be that multivalent items should be described repeatedly not only as examples of a type but also as examples of the classes which expound the relevant elements. This solution is open to objection on the grounds of inefficiency and loss of economy. On such occasions a compromise is preferred instead of insisting on what appears to be the "logically" correct solution in theory. The compromise statement should present a description of both kinds of likeness without falsifying the picture; further it should be applicable to categories, as a whole and not be made 'ad hoc' for each individual occurrence of an item. To take the example of the multivalent item "I'll come", we can state the following:

- i) The clause may expound element F.
- ii) The clause may expound element B.
- iii) At element F it enters in a Mood selection being a member of the affirmative clause class.
- iv) At element B, it contrasts with other exponent items, which belong to a different type (e.g. 'that I'll come').
- v) Finally all members of the clause class 'Affirmative' may expound the element B under stateable conditions.

Here we should assign the items "I'll come" (i) and "I'll come" (ii) to the same class: the class being: "affirmative clause class". The reasons are as follows:

i) One of the functions of the item is to expound the affirmative clause class.

ii) All Affirmative clauses belong to this type.

iii) The element B may be expounded by another type of item, which is never capable of expounding an affirmative clause class (e.g. "that I'll come").

2b. The rule employed in this study for the class-classification of items may be stated in general as follows: An item may claim class membership with other items only if it shares the syntactic membership of the class in general. Where it has two (or more than two) functions, the additional criterion of type-membership is employed. Type-membership by itself is not an argument for inclusion in the same class. For instance "Read This!" and "Dash it!" may be alike in morphology but are not considered as members of the same class. A multivalent item belongs to the class members of which are like the said item both in morphology and syntactic function, without having a sub-class items of which differ from the multivalent item in morphology.

3. The structurally determined secondary clause classes have been enumerated in Chapter IB above, in connection with the determination of grammatical sentences. There are two other axes¹ of clause classification:

- i) With reference to whether a clause operates in a sentence or not; and,
- ii) With reference to certain choices open to all clauses, whether they expound element F or B or &.

1. The term "axis/axes" is not used here consistently to refer to the "axes of chain and choice" alone as by M.A.K. Halliday in "Class".

We refer to the first as "pre-primary clause-classification" and to the second as "general secondary clause-classification"; while the secondary clause classes derived from a consideration of choices in sentence-structure are called "secondary clause-classes".

3a. A clause may or may not act as an element of the structure of a sentence. The theory allows for an item of a higher rank to perform the function of that of a lower rank through "rankshift".¹ For example, a clause may expound the element of the structure of a clause instead of a sentence, e.g.:

"..... lecturing Theo would steady his own nerves".

(A-S.A., p.26)

The rankshifted clause is underlined and operates at a place normally filled by a group. Thus we could say:

Whisky would steady his own nerves.

A glass of whisky would steady his own nerves.

Drinking whisky would steady his own nerves.

The rankshifted clauses in the above examples have given up the 'privilege' of being clauses that enter in sentence structures, instead they act as groups. All sentences quoted above, therefore, consist of only an element F which is expounded by clauses with the same primary structure: SPC², with the only difference that in the first and the last sentence the element S is expounded by a rankshifted clause, which has the structure: PC.

3b. Rankshift of items is allowed only from higher to lower rank: a clause may through rankshift operate as a group, a group as a word

1. See MA..K. Halliday: Categories.

2. See below for S, P and C elements.

but a word is not rankshifted to act as a group or a group as a clause. To speak of rankshifting word to group and group to clause etc. is unnecessary since the type-distinction of "simple" and "compound" units provides for the description of units consisting of one or more than one unit below.

3c. The rank-status of the rankshifted items presents a problem. For example, in what sense is a rankshifted clause, a clause when it acts as a group? While the assignment of an item to a particular class of a unit depends only on its syntactic value and not on its morphology, the assignment of an isolated item to a unit on the rank-scale is primarily determined by its morphology. So that when we say an item is a rankshifted clause, we imply two relations simultaneously:

- i) that the item is like all clauses, in general, in its own structure (and its syntactic potentialities).
- ii) that the item in a given instance is not acting as a clause in a sentence but as the element of clause structure and is sharing certain syntactic affinities with a particular class of group.

This statement applies generally to all rankshifted items of any rank, with the only difference of the actual ranks involved, in any given case.

3d. The above discussion is relevant to the description of rankshifted items of all ranks. Type statements regarding rankshifted items are clearly superfluous. The syntactic potentialities of rankshifted items vary according to their ranks and within this generally according to their class. Consider the following:

"I wouldn't read the newspaper, if it wasn't for this ridiculous idea that's been implanted in all of us about being well informed."

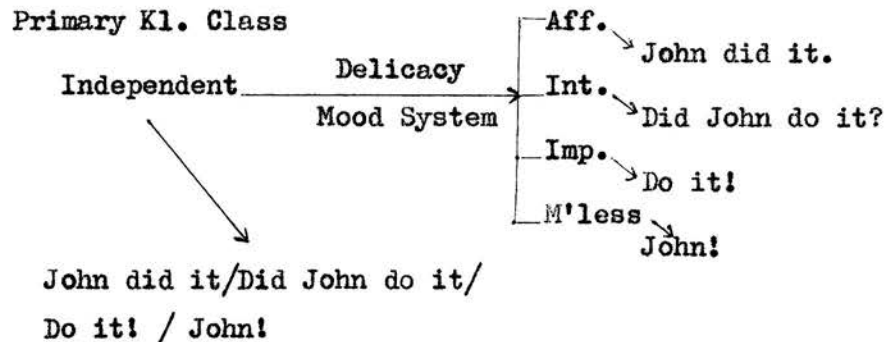
(A-S.A., p. 61)

The syntactic values of "that's been implanted in all of us", of "in all of us" and of "about being well informed" vary. As is also clear, there is no one-to-one correspondence between classes of units and their functions when in rankshift and for each place in structure where a rankshifted item may occur it is necessary to state which class or classes, of which unit or units can operate with this value. This syntactic classification of rankshifted items is more conveniently considered with reference to the elements they may expound, and is to be made as and when occasion demands. Thus rankshifted clauses will, for example, be discussed when we discuss those elements of clause and group structure where a rankshifted clause may operate.

4. The clause classes and their exponent types discussed in Chapter IIB, C, and D are primarily non-rankshifted classes whether secondary or general secondary. Mention is made where the syntactic potentialities of the members of a class in rankshift are relevant.

CHAPTER IIB : Independent Clause Class.

1. Primary elements of the structure of any unit are categories of a very high degree of abstraction. Members of a primary class derived from such primary elements are alike in a 'most general way'. Since each primary element may be further subdivided either with reference to the "chain"¹ or the "choice"¹ axis, each primary class is correspondingly subclassified. Any one item cited as an exponent of the primary class of a unit in itself does not indicate the full range of the chain or choice-combinations available within the class. Thus if we say that the clause "John did it" is an exponent of the primary clause class: Independent, we are presenting only a special instance of the class in question since both "Did John do it?" and "Do it!" as well as "John!" may expound the primary independent class. It is therefore more useful to describe primary classes via their secondary classes.² Thus we may say:



It follows from the above representation that all exponents of any of the secondary clause classes will also "be" the exponent of the primary clause class, at that degree of delicacy.

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1. Cf. M.A.K. Halliday: 'Class'.
 2. There is no implication that at the primary degree of delicacy an exponence relation with the item cannot be made, but obviously going directly from a primary category to a formal item limits the exhaustiveness of the description of the item itself.

1a. Certain structures may in general be correlated with certain classes of units so that if a clause belongs to a particular type it is highly probable that among other classes, it may expound a certain particular class of clause more consistently. A type may be said to expound a secondary class only if it can meet the requirements of the primary class itself. Thus though Subject + Predicate in that order is a type generally correlated with the secondary clause class: 'Affirmative', a sub-type with a particular class of word at subject (e.g. 'whoever', 'whatever' etc.) may not be considered as capable of expounding the Affirmative clause class, since at the primary degree of delicacy the latter items are not related exponentially to the primary class, itself. Most types are multivalent, and most classes are expounded by more than one type. A class itself may be multivalent if it may expound more than one primary element on chain axis, as in the case of the nominal group. This results in a complicated set of criteria to be employed for the identification and recognition of each item as exponent of a given class in a given instance. These criteria are obviously crucial to any textual study, and will be listed below. Further, statements will be made regarding multivalent types, or items.

2. A discussion of the types of clauses involves us in a brief discussion of the elements of the structure of the clause. The five primary elements of clause structure derived from the chain axis are S, P, C, A and Z. All clause structures may be stated in terms of these elements. The rank immediately below clause being group, the classes of groups are derived from these elements. The primary group: "Nominal" is derived from the elements S, C and Z; the "Verbal" from the element P; and the "Adverbial" from A.

2a. The types of groups exponent of the primary group class "Verbal", are very largely univalent. Every time a member of this class, specially finite or compound non-finite, occurs it expounds an element P. The element P has, thus, a strongly unambiguous status, such that the status of the members of multivalent classes (e.g. of the Nominal group) may be decided by reference to the element P.

2b. Members of the nominal group may expound the elements S, C or Z - and in some cases also the element A. The elements S, C and Z are entirely expounded¹ by the nominal group while the element A has a set of univalent items which may only expound the element A itself; of the three elements S, C and Z, neither has a separate set of exponents completely exclusive to itself. It is therefore necessary to establish some criteria for distinguishing S from C from Z.

2c. The majority of clauses in English consists of at least one verbal group and at least one, though frequently more than one nominal groups. The order in sequence of these groups in a clause may be as shown below:

Nom. Gp * Vbl Gp + Nom. Gp.

("Evie") + (must have) + (my lifted and)
 (watched) + (trusting eyes...")

(F.F., p.31)

It may be noted that the relationship holding between the first nominal group and the verbal group is a property of the "order", in which they occur. So if the two nominal groups are changed around, the present relationship between the items will also change. "Evie" is to "must have watched" in the above example, as "my lifted and trusting eyes" would be

1. We ignore 'quotative' items e.g. in example x: "Lets go to the pub" Y: "Yes. To the pub is a good idea"; we also ignore rankshifted clauses expounding any of these elements, since they are not relevant to the discussion.

to the same verbal group if the order was changed. The nominal group preceding P has been traditionally called "Subject". The term is retained here but unlike traditional grammar, it is not defined as the "actor of the action". The subject is that nominal group which in clauses either precedes or is included within the verbal group at P, without being interrupted by any other nominal group.

2c.i The modifications regarding inclusion and interruption are necessary. Inclusion of the exponent of the element S within the item exponent of the element P is a common feature of a particular type of clauses. Compare:

- i) "This scheme brought me one king of Egypt..."
 S P

(F.F., p.51)

- ii) "Did ((this scheme)) bring me one king of Egypt...?"
 S

- and iii) "Never did ((this scheme)) bring me a king of Egypt..."
 S =P

In spite of inclusion the relationship of "this scheme" to "did bring" is the same in ii) as that of "this scheme" to "brought" in i).

2c.ii Interruption between the nominal group at S and the verbal group at P is possible - except when the interrupting item itself is a nominal group. Thus compare:

- i) This scheme brought me one king of Egypt..."
 ii) One king of Egypt this scheme brought me...
 (but the others it didn't).
 iii) This scheme one king of Egypt brought me...
 iv) This scheme once brought me one king of Egypt
 (but nothing more after that).

- v) This scheme, when it was put in practice, brought me one king of Egypt....

In particular compare ii) and iii) above. In the latter "one king of Egypt" is the nominal group expounding the element S, because it immediately precedes the verbal group at P, while in the former "this scheme" has the function of S for the same reason. Examples iv) and v) present interrupting items which are not nominal groups, and therefore do not affect the S-P relation between items "This scheme" and "brought".

2c.iii The above identificatory rule for the element S in English clauses is applicable to the majority of S-occurrences. In cases of ambiguity¹ the associated feature of "concord" may be appealed to, though as the example in the last footnote shows the feature itself may not be unambiguous, in which case the co-text or the context may be appealed to.

By "concord" is meant a demand relation between a particular secondary class of the verbal group and a particular secondary class of the nominal group at S. When the exponent of P carries the tense 'present' and the exponent of S belongs to the class "third person", the selection of singular or plural in the nominal group is reflected in a similar selection in the verbal group. Thus:

Children pursue

Child pursues

The feature of concord may not be used as a crucial criterion for identifying the element S because:

- a) It applies to a small sub-class of both elements, and when we consider that a combination of both is required before we may examine an

1. I have in mind instances of poetic language where the rule of "interruption" does not always hold good. For example in Pope's line: "Pleasures the sex as children birds pursue."

actual instance for "concord" the applicability of the feature appears to be very limited.

b) Sometimes¹ two nominal groups occurring in one clause may both belong to the class which is capable of expounding the element S as far as the concord relation is concerned. Thus

Children pursue birds

and Birds pursue children

are both "possible" if concord is used as a crucial criterion.

2c.iv In making the "order" of SP the crucial criterion, we account for a larger number of the occurrences of the element S than we would through concord. Further, there is a high degree of coincidence between the subject thus defined and the contextual "actor of the action", though there can obviously be no one-to-one correspondence between the two. It is expected that contextual statements regarding sub-classes of nominal groups at S may be made with reference to the entire sub-class. Thus in the following examples the contextual statement regarding S is different from the one regarding the underlined S in the last example of the series.

It remains to be seen.....

It is raining.

I was told

There's a solution to this problem.

He would stand in the middle of the playground."

2c.v In defining S by order, the items "here" and "there" present a problem in clauses such as the following:

i) Here's a book

ii) There's a boy

1. Cf. the example quoted in footnote 1 on page 75 above.

The items "here" and "there" have been treated as pairs in contrast, but in the examples presented above their function is not that of the contrast as in demonstrative adjective. The fact that the item "there" in example ii) is not the 'same' as here/there is clearly brought out in spoken language through phonological differences¹. The syntactic function of "there" in the above example is the same as that of any exponent of the element S. For example it may be included² within the exponent of P like any other exponent of S. Thus:

There's a boy
Is there a boy

In contrast, we cannot say in English

Is here a book?

'There' is therefore recognised in the above position as an exponent of S, while 'here' is always treated as an exponent of the element A of clause structure. As a result of this decision different primary structures are assigned to clauses i) and ii) above, namely ASP? and SPC., respectively.

There may be four objections to this solution:

- i) The general contrastive nature of the pair "here" and "there" is obscured.
- ii) Clause i) is assigned an interrogative structure when its contextual function is statement.
- iii) What 'looks' like the 'same' structure is analyzed primarily as different.
- iv) Item "there" may expound the element S only in conjunction with certain exponents of P.

Of these objections i) has been refuted by implication. Although

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- 1. The use of 'there' as the exponent of the element S is unstressed.
 - 2. "Inclusion" of the exponent of S may more specially be stated as: "The first word of the verbal group precedes the exponent of S", as for example here.

"there" behaves as a term of the contrastive pair in structures such as "The book is here", "The pencil is there", we have shown that in the above structures its value is different.

Objection ii) is not very serious, since there is no one-to-one correspondence between grammatical patterns and their contextual functions. Consider the following:

"And under everything else, deep, was an anguish of helplessness and loss."

(K1-STR = Int., Sc-function = Statement) (F.F., p.123)

"What accepted suitor in a book ever started to tremble and weep?"

(K1-STR = Aff., Sc-function = Q.) (F.F., p.109)

"All that long ago?" (on tone 2)

(K1-STR = M'less, Sc-function = Q) (F.F., p.88)

Any concessions made to item "There's a book" on this ground, would imply that the analysis of the above items should also be changed. Such accommodation of contextual statements in grammatical description may lead to many well-known pitfalls.

The "intuitive" feeling regarding the clauses in question being the "same", is in fact determined by traditional training, according to which "here" and "there" are treated as alike. They have now been shown to be different syntactically in the quoted instances, the third objection can therefore be safely dismissed.

The last objection is the strongest and a simple answer is not easy to state. It is to be considered whether the nature of restriction on the exponents of P in the presence of "there" at S is entirely grammatical, so that with "there" at S, the element P may be expounded by 'is' 'seem' 'remain' 'appear', 'happen' and perhaps a few other items only. When a

fully lexical item expounds S, such restrictions are regarded as those imposed by lexis alone, e.g. in

S P C
- cooked the meal.

where 'the road' and 'the boat' may not be acceptable, as exponents of the element S. But for obvious reasons, "there" is best not regarded as a fully lexical item. Further, "there" at S, shares a syntactic feature with a certain small sub-class of the nominal group capable of expounding S - it may not expound the elements C¹, or Z¹.

Consider for example

- i) Mary's friend is the younger one. (SPC)
- ii) The younger one is Mary's friend. (SPC)
- but iii) There's the boy. (SPC)
- iv) The boy is there. (SPA)

Notice that in example iv "there" operates contrastively with "here".

So we may have:

- iv) The boy is there (out in the garden) (SPA)
- v) The boy is here (right in front of you) (SPA)

We consider "there" as a multivalent item capable of expounding S or A elements of clause structure; further we state the restrictions on "there" when acting as the exponent of the element S, in conjunction with other such "restricted" items. This mode of treating "there" ensures that the full range of its syntactic potentialities is accounted for.

2d. The other two elements of clause structure habitually expounded by the nominal group are C and Z. The definition of Z is partly dependent on that of S and C. C itself may be defined in two ways:

-
1. For the definition of these elements see p.79-82 below. The sub-class behaving like "there" in this respect are some "personal pronouns".

a) negatively with respect to S and b) positively with reference to P.

Negatively, we may say C is expounded by that nominal group in a clause which is not expounding the element S. But since some members of the nominal group are multivalent with reference to the element A, as well, we may sometimes come across a clause which has two nominal groups, one at S and the other expounding the element A. As a means of distinguishing between C and this particular class of A, we have to modify the above statement. It is a characteristic of such A elements that in a clause with the element C, they may not occur between the elements P and C. We may therefore positively identify C as: "C is expounded by a nominal group, immediately following the exponent of the element P without being interrupted by any other nominal group."

For the majority of clauses this definition would suffice. But two points need to be noticed:

- i) that the "order" of P and C is not crucial, since C may precede an element S. Thus for example the clause:

".... I did not mind twisting his arm...."

(F.F., p.51)

can be rewritten as:

"....his arm I did not mind twisting, but I disliked taking his fag-cards."

The above contrast is not random, and represents a systemic choice; nevertheless it clearly disqualifies "order" as a crucial criterion for identifying C.

- ii) Not all clauses in English have the element C in them.

This poses a problem. Suppose we have a clause with Nom gp + Vbl gp + Nom gp in that order, how do we know that the last nominal group is an exponent of C or A in a given instance? A criterion for distinguishing C from A is required in such cases.

2d.i In order to define C unambiguously, and without depending on the feature of order, we compare it with the element A, as an ambiguity may arise only with reference to this element. Consider the following clauses:

He slept.	(SP)
He slept the whole night.	(SPA)
He slept a dreamless sleep.	(SPC)
He slept a dreamless sleep the whole night.	(SPCA)

Since the element C may precede element S, the last clause may systemically contrast with the following:

A dreamless sleep he slept the whole night. (CSPA)

The element A is more mobile than the element C, and may change its place in sequence e.g.:

The whole night, a dreamless sleep he slept. (ACSP/)

or: The whole night he slept a dreamless sleep. (ASPC)

or more rare but acceptable in certain registers:

A dreamless sleep the whole night he slept. (CASP)

Failing "order" which cannot be exploited here for distinguishing C and A, we have used a test that appears effective: this is to substitute the lexical verb in clauses of potentially SPA or SPC structure by the substitute¹ 'did/do'. If the Nom. group is an exponent of C the clause

1. See the Verbal Group Chapter IIIC of this section (especially page 250 below.) The substitute 'do' is different from the lexical item 'do' as in for instance:

	they played Shakespeare
	they played last night
and:	they <u>did</u> Shakespeare (lexical)
	they <u>did</u> last night (substitute)

after such substitution becomes unacceptable, otherwise not. So that we may have:

He did, the whole night. (Cf: 'Did he sleep?')

but not: * He did a dreamless sleep.

Substitution is not used as an identification device, because on this basis the distinction between "a dreamless sleep" and "the whole night" cannot be brought out.

2d.ii With all these modifications in view we may define C as that element of the clause which is expounded by a nominal group not expounding S or A, and normally observed to follow the element P in sequence.

2e. From the discussion of the elements S and C, it is clear that the presence of the element P is either directly (as in S) or indirectly (as in C) crucial to their status. Where, as in the moodless clauses, the element P is absent, it follows that the status of a nominal group as the exponent of S or C cannot be determined, except by reference to the co-text. Such nominal groups are labelled Z. The element Z is, thus, negatively established as "neither identified as S nor as C."

2e.i There is also a positive reason for recognizing an element 'Z'. So far our examples have shown elements S and C in discrete S and C relation to P. This is by far the most normal state of affairs. But consider:

"We can watch ourselves becoming automata...."

(F.F., p.115)

Here the S, C and P relationships may be resolved as follows:

i) $\frac{\text{We can watch}}{\text{S}} \quad \frac{\text{ourselves}}{\text{P}} \quad \frac{}{\text{C}} = (\text{SPC})$

ii) $\frac{\text{Ourselves}}{\text{S}} \quad \frac{\text{becoming automata}}{\text{P}} \quad \frac{}{\text{C}} (\text{SPC})$

The items 'we' and 'automata' are in discrete S and C relation to their respective P items, but the item "ourselves" combines both functions: it stands in a C relation to "can watch" and in a S relation to "becoming". The element between two P elements of a clause, when combining the functions of C and S for the two P elements is also called Z. Thus we have a negative criterion for Z: 'neither identified as S nor as C' and a positive one: 'both S and C'.

We do not use rankshift to explain these relations in the clause under discussion for two reasons. First, that by doing so we would obscure the relationships centring within one element, but comprising the relations of two elements, as expressed clearly by the following formula:

$$S P \quad \underline{C + S} \quad P C \quad = \quad S P \underline{Z} P C.$$

Secondly, by introducing rankshift, a further move in delicacy is necessitated before coming face to face with the item. This should be avoided where possible in the interest of economy, as long as a "fact" is not distorted.

There is theoretically no limit to the number of Z elements in a clause whether positive or negative.

2f. The element A is expounded habitually by the adverbial group. Being the most mobile element of clause structure, it may take almost any place in sequence, but its selection in the clause-final place was observed to be the most frequent one. A general statement regarding its potential occurrences may be made as follows:

$$A S A P ((A)) C A$$

In the clause-initial and clause-final positions an A element may be selected more than once, and although structures

S A A P and P ((A,A)) C

were met with in the text,¹ these are rare. Further these 'medial',² A elements do not appear to be selected as many times successively as does the final one.

A particular sub-class of the nominal group may also expound the element A.

2g. With the help of the elements S, P, C, Z and A we may describe any type of clause in English. As long as it is realized that type as such is not relevant to the assignment of an item to a class, it is profitable to make statements of the exponents of a class through the various types which are exponentially related to it, rather than through individual examples. Types are determined here only at the primary degree of delicacy; where a more delicate subdivision of the type is required in talking about the memberships of various classes, this more delicate type is referred to as a sub-type.

3. The secondary clause classes of the independent clause class generally coincide with certain types³. The exponent type of the affirmative clause class is the sequential order of the elements SP in that order. The presence or absence of the elements C, Z and A is not relevant here, with the proviso that a particular class⁴ of the element A may not occur at the clause-initial place if the SP type is to expound the affirmative class.

1. See Comparison, Section III, Chapter III p 318-325 below.

2. See Section II, Chapter III p. 228 for detailed explanation of terms 'medial' 'final' 'initial' elements.

3. For a summary of these see the table comparing the terms from Mood System with the terms in Sentence-function, on p. 53 above (Chapter I of this section.)

4. I have in mind the class of A elements the presence of which is crucial to the ability of a type to expound dependent clauses, such as 'when', 'where' and some others.

Where the positive Z element is present in a clause, only the first set of SP elements is relevant to the clause-classification. Thus:

"We can watch ourselves becoming automata..."
 S P Z P C

is an instance of an affirmative clause, while:

Can we watch ourselves becoming automata....
 P ((S)) Z P C

would be regarded as another type, and also the member of another class of clause.

3a. All members of the type exponent of the affirmative class are multivalent. They may expound a dependent reported clause, though there are some restrictions. For example with the selection of an item from the lexical set "ask" in the reporting clause, the reported clause, may be expounded only¹ by a subtype of the type under discussion. This subtype is characterized by the presence of an item from the "interrogative pronoun" class at the element S. At the same time there are other items, which when present in the reporting clause, prohibit this sub-type from expounding a reported clause. There is only a very small list of reporting items that will allow the entire range of the type to expound the reported clause. Thus compare:

///"I'm sure // you'll understand //....."
 Rg Rd (Type: SP) (A-S.A., p.252)

but not: * I'm sure who'll understand.

However it is possible to say both:

I know you'll understand, and
 I know who will understand.

-
1. In addition to the type that is specific to the reported dependent clause class only (or to dependent clauses in general).

While although it is possible to have a sentence such as

I asked who will understand.

the following will not be an acceptable sentence:

* I asked you'll understand.

3b. All clauses of the type primarily exponent of the affirmative class can be rankshifted to act as an element S in clause structure and as the element q in group structure. These details are presented at appropriate places.

3c. The sub-type with the interrogative pronoun at S, has another multivalent function: it may expound the additioning dependent clauses. Thus consider:

// "She smiled archly at Sir Edgar // who slumped
into his chair.....// "...." (A-S.A., p.42)

3d. It may be questioned as to why the clauses of the sub-type with the interrogative pronoun at S, are regarded as members of the affirmative class. Such an objection is raised with the sentence function of the clause in mind. As said before, this consideration is primarily irrelevant to the grammatical description of an item and there are other examples of the affirmative clauses with the sentence function: Q: e.g. John said so? on Tone 2. Further we have a perfectly acceptable, even though rather rare interrogative structure with such pronouns expounding the element S. Thus compare:

Who will understand? and
Will who understand? (John? Some hope - he never
understands a thing!)

If we regard both structures as instances of the interrogative clause class, it will introduce certain complications in the description.

4. The type of clause exponentially related to the interrogative class is $P((S))$, the element S following the first word of the verbal group. Again, as in the affirmative, the elements C, Z and A are irrelevant. Although interrogative items may expound the elements C and A, the presence of these is not crucial to the exponential abilities of the type; as will be made clear by the following examples:

- i) ///"Steak and Bearnaise sauce which I made...."///
(A-S.A., p.192)
- ii) ///"(Steak or Bearnaise sauce) - which did I make///

The first example (underlined) does not present $P((S))$ feature and is therefore not an exponent of the interrogative class inspite of the item "which"¹, while the second would be regarded as an instance of the interrogative class even in the absence of the interrogative item "which"².

4a. A small sub-type of this type is multivalent and may expound a dependent conditioning clause. The sub-type is distinguished from other members of the primary type by the presence of "past-in-past tense"³ in the verbal group at the element P. An example of this type is: "Had I been there before?" In spoken texts, it is expected that if the clause is expounding a B element it will carry a different Tone group from that which it would carry if acting as F? Thus:

- i) ///Had I been there before?/// $P((S))$ A A ? Tone 2 = F?
- ii) ///Had I been there before, // I would never have agreed to go again.///
 $P((S))$ A A ? + S P A. Tone 4 = B^x F.

4b. A type with $P((S))$ is again multivalent with reference to

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1. See the discussion of dependent clause classes where the nature of the item "which" i) and "which" ii) is discussed. The first may not be regarded as an interrogative group.
 2. That the item "which" will have to be substituted in this particular example by another (lexical) item does not affect the point being made.
 3. See Verbal Group Chapter IIIIC below.

thematic clauses¹. We may say that the very presence of that particular class of A element in clause-initial position, argues for setting up a separate type. This in fact is not questioned, but at the primary degree of delicacy the type remains to be the general type P((S)). Further, if a thematic clause with such a structure is independent, it follows that it must also belong to a secondary clause class. Maintaining the consistency of the criterion of P((S)), we regard such clauses as belonging to the interrogative class.

Not all the clause-initial A elements, necessitate the selection of P((S)) structure. The list of items at A, imposing this selection is as follows:

Rarely
Seldom
Often
Never

An example of the type of the clause is:

"Never, after all, had he himself been prepared to face
A A P ((S)

the truth in life....."
C A

(A-S.A., p.12)

4c. The majority of the interrogative clauses, have the sentence-function of question. It must be added, however, that when the type exponent of the interrogative class is performing one of its multivalent functions of e pounding a dependent conditioning or a thematic clause, its sentence function potentialities change. In the former case, the consideration of sentence-function is not relevant, in the latter it is always statement.

5. The type exponent of the imperative clause class is determined by reference to the elements S and P. With regard to S the criterion is

1. See the System of Theme below, p.173.

negative: this type of clause is without an element S, while at P in such clauses must be selected a verbal group with simple present tense¹. When verbal groups in phase² or in Aspect³ occur the first group at P and P₁, respectively, is relevant. Thus consider:

Aspect: Don't sit dreaming all the time.

P

A

and Phase: Watch yourself becoming automata.

P

Z

P

C

5a. Both the absence of the element S and the presence of the simple present tense in the exponent of the element P are crucial, and must be present simultaneously. Consider

Was tired.

Walked home.

Neither of the above is regarded as an imperative clause because of obvious shortcomings.

5b. Though every exponent of the imperative clause must have these two structural features, not every clause with these features is necessarily an exponent of the imperative class; for example consider the following sequence of clauses.

"I never tell lies. Try not to, anyway."

Superficially, the second clause has both the structural features qualifying it to expound an imperative clause, but in this particular instance it is not regarded as an instance of the imperative clause, because the relation of the clause in question to the first clause is the same as in the follows:

"I never told lies. Tried not to, anyway."

1. See Verbal Group Chapter IIIC, p.256 below.

2. Ibid.

3. Ibid.

5c. It follows that the type $\$P$ (present) is multivalent like the other types. Where a clause of this type occurs with sufficient co-text, we have a clear clue as to which of its multivalent functions it is performing in a given instance, but in isolation it must be recognized potentially as exponent of (a) the imperative clause class and (b) the linked clause class¹ of a particular class. It may be said that in all cases where this particular type expounds a class of linked clause it is possible for the S element of the presupposed clause to be repeated in the linked clause.

I never tell lies. Try not to, anyway (= F & F)
I never tell lies. I try not to, anyway. (= F.F.)

But this cannot be used as an effective distinction criterion, because it may also apply to the exponent of the imperative clause. So:

You must not make life difficult for yourself.
 Learn to relax. (=F.F!)

The second clause above may be rewritten as "You learn to relax", with a similar kind of change in meaning as is observed to result from the introduction of I in "(I) try not to".

5d. A possible problem in identification is presented in items such as the following:

- i) John run home.
- ii) Children stop shouting.
- iii) You run home.

If the affirmative clause is expounded by the type: SP, and if S is the nominal group immediately preceding P, then all items above must be exponents of the affirmative class. In fact, this is not the position.

With the first example, we have that subclass of S and P which display a concord relation for almost a 100% of the occurrence. So that

1. See linked clause class Chapter IID of this section, page 166 below.

if the syntactic relation between "John" and "run" was that of S and P, the item would read as:

John runs home.

Further S having a fixed place in affirmative structures, it would be impossible to accept a sentence¹ such as:

*Runs home John.

though it is perfectly possible and quite common to say:

Run home John!

Moreover when a nominal group expounds an S in a normal SP relation, it is possible to 'interrupt' the two elements by a clause or an A element (See 2c. ii above). But at no time is it possible to drop the exponent of S entirely without rendering the sentence either meaningless or making it mean something very different from its original meaning. Consider:

- i) My brother, when he comes from India, brings me nice presents. (Sc-STR F((B)). Kl-STRs = S((ASPA))PCC)

and ii) *When he comes from India, brings me nice presents.

In contrast with this, the dropping of the nominal group preceding P is possible in items such as: "John run home". Consider:

- i) John, when I've finished this letter, run home and give it to your mother.
ii) When I've finished this letter, run home and give it to your mother.

Because of these differences, we do not regard "John run home" as belonging to the type SP. The item is regarded as consisting of two clauses as follows:

John	//	run home	
Z		P A	(= F. F!)

1. This is an approximate statement, as exceptions may be found to this rule in the poetic register. Thus we may have: "Breathes there a man with soul so dead...."

The problem regarding items such as "children stop shouting" and "You run home" is slightly different. These items being multivalent, may either expound the affirmative class or two clauses of the types as in the example above. With the second item "Children stop shouting" we have means of checking whether the item is in contrast with "child stop shouting" or "the child stops shouting". This is not an efficient check, for the obvious reason that we may contrast the item with either part of the pair, according to how we have chosen to interpret the item. The test of dropping the nominal group preceding P and introducing a clause (as for the example above) is more reliable, since if the interpretation is wrong the resultant item will not fit in with the co-text. With "You run home" the possibility of a contrastive check is entirely absent, but the second check is available. Further the mobility of "you" in the clause is restricted as that of "Children" and "John", when these expound Z. "You run home" is a border-line case where the item may always be treated as expounding the structure SP or because of its being parallel to "John run home" we may in a given instance use the second test (of omitting the nominal group preceding P) and act as the result suggests. In the present study the former approach is adopted. This decision was taken because of the nature of the text. Since the texts used for the present study were written, an orthographic clue was available, that of a comma between Z and the imperative clause as in:

"..... Taffy, for Pete's sake marry me."

(F.F., p.129)

This is however not a feature present in clauses where Z as defined above, would be expounded by "You" as the following example will show:

"You cock an eye at another woman and I'll have
your guts for a girdle."

(F.F., p.129)

5e. The Z element is entirely irrelevant to the type-
classification of the clause which may expound the imperative class. The
normal position of C following P is maintained in the imperative clauses,
though theoretically there is the possibility of a thematic C¹ preceding
P and resulting in some ambiguity. It is expected that in orthography a
(,) comma may intervene between C and P, but since this is the case also
for Z//P items², some other criterion would be needed. We did not evolve
such a criterion, because with imperative clauses thematic C did not occur
even once in the sample. The position regarding thematic A elements was
different. These were encountered comparatively frequently but presented
no problem in identification.

5f. Certain items which look 'like' the type of the clause
capable of expounding the imperative class, but which do not have this
syntactic function are as shown below:

Dash it.
Thank you.
Bless you.
Blast you.

The syntactic function of these items is that of the members of the
adverbial class of group³ which may expound the element A of clause
structure. The items above are not treated as a member of any clause
class. In their own morphology, of course they represent a particular
type of clause.

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1. See the System of Theme, Chapter IIB-1 p.172-173 below.
 2. Here the // shows that the elements are the elements of the structure
of two clauses.
 3. See the discussion of the idiomatic class of the adverbial in Chapter IIIB
of this section (p.231).

5g. Like other clause classes, members of the imperative class generally coincide with the sentence function: "Command", but as usual there is no one-to-one correspondence between the two. Thus: "want that?" is assigned to the imperative clause class, but carries the sentence function of question. Similarly consider the following, which though not members of the imperative class, perform the sentence function of request or order:

Do you mind shutting the door, please? (P((S))CA?) = Request
 I request an early reply to this letter. (SPCA.) = "
 You are to leave this country immediately. (SPCA.) = Order.

The moodless and the imperative clauses show a considerable degree of overlap in sentence-function. Thus:

Please! (M'less Kl., Sc-function Request)
 The scissors first. (M'less Kl., Sc-function Order,
 e.g. in an operation-theatre.)

6. The remaining secondary independent clause class is the moodless (or the neutral). In discussing the identity of the element Z^1 , these clauses were described as clauses without an element P in them.

The absence of P necessarily limits the inventory of elements capable of entering in the structure of a moodless clause to Z and A. These two elements may expound a moodless clause either separately or in conjunction, either singly (as Z./A.) or in series (as Z Z. A A. etc.)

6a. Since a series of nominal groups may expound a moodless clause the absence of P may sometimes pose a problem in distinguishing between such a moodless clause and a clause which is linked by the absence of P. For example, consider:

Mary liked icecream, John, lollypop, but Susan
 wanted nothing.

1. See 2e. p. 82 of this Chapter, above.

The above may be rewritten as:

Mary liked icecream, John liked lollypop, but
Susan wanted nothing¹.

The underlined item of the example is considered as an exponent of a linked clause, since it shares a feature general to a sub-class of the linked² clauses - that of the absence of an element, which may be literally substituted from the presupposed item, reducing the linked clause in question to an unlinked one. When such substitution is not possible, the Nominal groups in question are regarded as exponents of Z elements, as for example the underlined groups in the following item:

".... the pink bow flopped sideways. // august and
unattainable." (F.F., p.29)

The statement regarding the absence of P should therefore be reformulated as: "A moodless clause is identified by the absence of the element P, unless the absence of the element P is a "linking feature".

6b. A further problem in the identification of moodless clause results from the mobility of the A elements in clause structure. In analysing a given text, there is the problem of deciding whether a given instance of A belongs to the preceding or the following clause or is an exponent of a moodless clause with one element A. On the other hand a nominal group following a P element raises the question whether it is to be treated as C, or as the Z element of a moodless clause. Below are stated the environments in which an occurrence of the adverbial or nominal group was regarded as expounding an element of the structure of a moodless clause. These environments are not crucial criteria for labelling the item as moodless. They represent a range of the surroundings of these clauses.

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1. Compare this with the situation stated in 5b and c, above, with regard to linked clauses identified by the absence of S.
 2. See Linked clauses Chapter IID p.167 below.

6b.i Since the texts were written, the occurrence of two full stops, one on either side of an item without P, qualified it as an example of a moodless clause. In this way, though it is recognized that an orthographic sentence may be less than one grammatical sentence, it can never be less than a clause. Examples of such moodless clauses are:

.//Not a corridor.// A cell.//¹
(F.F., p.171)

6b.ii A consideration of linking at clause rank (i.e. between groups) provides help in identifying such clauses. Two different primary classes of groups are not observed to accept a linking relation. Thus a nominal group is not linked to an adverbial group and vice versa. This helps in the identification of items such as the following:

//"..... he retained his buoyant mood // though not perhaps, with quite the carefreeness of the night of Marie Helene's party."//
(A-S.A., p.307)

The underlined is here considered a linked moodless clause². Compare the above with the following which has been slightly modified to make the point clear:

He retained his buoyant mood, with a quiet serenity,
though not, with quite the carefreeness of the night
of Marie Helene's party.

Since in the above the linking relation obtains between two adverbial groups, the entire item is regarded as one clause with two A elements, the second of which is linked to the first.

The rule of regarding the linking item as the indicator of a clause boundary in cases such as quoted in the original example, is also observed in cases where the preceding item is a simple clause consisting of a group.

-
1. We ignore sentence-boundaries in the discussion of clauses unless specifically required.
 2. Being linked to P here, the clause is regarded as moodless: if however the presupposed element was a B, then the linked clause would acquire the secondary class status of the presupposed. For details see Linking below (Chapter IID, p.160).

Thus the following are examples of moodless clauses¹:

// So much money // and without any trouble.//

// All this worry // and for nothing.//

6b.iii On the other hand, we have clauses without the element P, but with more than one Z/A or Z and A elements. As long as there is no linking item between two incompatible groups², these groups are all treated as entering in the structure of the same clause. So consider:

// "Ah, yes, the interchange of ideas".//

A A Z (A-S.A., p.26)

// "Myself with reeling heart and straight, painful face."//

A A (F.F., p.81)

We may justify this practice on two grounds:

- a) that the number of A elements (and that of positive Z, as well) entering in one clause is not generally limited³ to one. There seems no reason why this should not be allowed for in moodless clauses as well.
- b) that but for this practice, we would very rarely have any compound moodless clause - the only other occasion for "compoundness" being a serial occurrence of A or Z elements. By serial relation is meant a listing of items where frequently the last item on the list is linked to the previous.

6b.iv With a clause interrupting a sequence of A or/and Z elements, whether in serial or non-serial relation, the beginning of the interrupting clause constitutes the end of the preceding moodless clause. There is one exception to this rule.

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1. Such occurrences are rare but not unacceptable.
 2. i.e. groups of two different primary classes.
 3. i.e. theoretically any number may occur, though in practice it is observed to be most frequently one, two or three. Larger samples as for instance the present texts may present more frequent selections of A element. For these see Comparison, Chapter (Section III) p. 320-325

In written texts it is fairly common to break up a quoted speech clause¹ or a reported clause by introducing the quoting¹ or reporting clause in the middle. This being the standard practice, when it is followed in the case of moodless clauses, the interrupted moodless clause is treated as one clause like any other such clause. For example, consider the sentences below:

"Good God" ((he thought)) "What a bloody shameful waste!"
(STR = F-((F.)).) (A-S.A., p.16)

So much ((thought Gerald)), for 1928.
(STR = F-((F.)).) (A-S.A., p.121)

In both examples the underlined are treated as exponents of one moodless clause, each.

6b.v Any nominal or adverbial groups punctuated by semicolon are treated as exponents of the moodless clause whether the preceding item is a clause or a group. So the following items are both treated as two clauses, the last one being moodless in both cases:

// "I am like Ma; // indifferent. // (F.F., p.13)
// "To these he added certain money making projects connected with spying on Robin and reporting to his wife; // and certain pressures he might apply to Gerald. // (A-S.A., p.287)

6b.vi Similarly the occurrence of dashes is utilised, so that any suitable items enclosed by dashes and interrupting a clause are treated as exponent of a moodless clause e.g.:

// ".... begged her - ((unconscious perhaps of the humour of the narrow couch)) - begged her to sleep with me." // (F.F., p.113)

Here the item enclosed within (()) is treated as a moodless clause.

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1. A quoted speech clause is one within inverted commas and accompanied or unaccompanied by a clause doing the reporting of the clause; the term 'quoting clause' is used to differentiate between a clause reporting a dependent reported and another quoting 'direct speech'. (See Reported Clauses Chapter IIC-3, p.155).

6b.vii Any nominal groups contextually referring to the h element of the group at S of a clause and occurring at the end of the clause, thus separated from S by other elements of clause structure are treated as the exponents of Z element unless there is a repetition of the "same" item.

Thus compare:

- i) // "She is the end of the tunnel, she."//
(F.F., p.15)
- ii) ///.... the alarm clock was still hurrying on towards the hysterical explosion, // hurrying on, // brittle, trivially insistent....."//
(F.F., p.27)

In the first case "she" is considered as part of the same clause like the rest of the items; in the second the underlined is considered as an instance of a moodless clause.

Though the term "contextual" is used above in order to present a simple statement, the check used is grammatical. Items which are thus separated from S, if they're to be treated as expounding elements Z/A of a moodless clause will belong to the class of items which in Nominal group structure could either act at m¹ or at h¹. With "she"² the possibility is limited to only h. "She" is treated as a repeated S.

6b.viii The quoted speech part of the text contains items of "address"³ and "rejoinders" such as "yes" "no", "well", "mm". Terms of address such as "John", "Father", "old dear", "darling" etc. are obviously instances of nominal groups. Since they have neither the S nor the C relation to a P, they are regarded as Z; and since they are instances of

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1. For elements 'm' and 'h', see Nominal Group, Chapter IIIA p. 189 below.
 2. Examples may be provided of nominal groups in which "she" may act as the exponent of element m, but such examples are exceptional and are specific to a certain variety of language. Moreover "she" is used here as a representative of a class consisting of certain personal pronouns and proper names.
 3. Used to address people.

negative Z, they are treated as (part of) another clause which is moodless. So, there are three clauses in the item below as shown by the clause-boundaries and the underlined is a moodless clause with Z (Address) structure:

// "... 'I hear you // my dear', // he said" //

(A-S.A., p.161)

Items which perform the sentence function of "rejoinder" are normally from the adverbial group. Since an A element may occur at any place in clause structure in the independent class, there would appear to be less reason for treating these (i.e. rejoinder A) as a separate clause. In the present study, however, the rejoinder A have been treated as a separate moodless clause when preceding a clause that is itself not moodless. This was done in order to maintain the distinction between such A elements and the thematic-A element. The position may be made clear by considering the following instances:

i) // "Yes, // I remember', // said Clarissa." //

A S P (A-S.A., p.21)

ii) // "To these he added some money-making projects..." //

A S P C (A-S.A., p.287)

If 'Yes' from example (i) was not treated as a separate clause the structure of both would look alike to the extent that they will both have the elements ASP in that order. A clause-initial A element is a special case of A and the contrastive reasons leading to the selection of initial rather than any other place in the clause are dealt with under the system of Theme: "To these" has a more usual place at the clause-final position here, but such a place is not open to a rejoinder A. Its more normal place is as in the example (i) above. If both these instances of A were

treated alike in analysis, this would obscure the very essential differences in the nature of these A elements, with reference both to the thematic A element and to the mobility of certain A elements.

6c. These identificational rules were employed specifically for P-less clauses expounding the moodless clause. Those P-less clauses which may expound either a linked or a dependent clause are discussed later in their appropriate places.

6d. The sentence function carried by a moodless clause varies. In general moodless clauses do not carry statement as often as command, answer or exclamation. They may carry the function of question, in which case a written text provides an unambiguous clue to this fact.

CHAPTER IIC 1 : Dependent Clause Class: Conditioning.

1. Under the systemic choice of dependence, a dependent clause may secondarily be:

- 1) Conditioning = Cg or
- 2) Additioning = Ag or
- 3) Reported = Rd

The clauses they presuppose are called conditioned, additioned and reporting respectively. In conformity with the general principle followed here, labels for categories are chosen by squinting to the contextual meaning¹ of the category, without elevating the contextual meaning to the status of crucial criterion for defining a category in grammar. Below, we discuss the criteria for the subclassification of the dependent element (and class), and enumerate the types of clauses which qualify² for the membership of each secondary dependent clause class, at the same time stating which of these types are multivalent.

1a. In discussing the subclassification of the dependent element, we select the place B on depth scale as the relevant one since this place is the class-defining place in the first instance. To C, D and E elements or sentence structure only those choices are open, to a certain extent, which in the first place are open to B.

2. The element B is comparatively free as to order in sequence, though as we progress further in depth, there is a general increase in restrictions. Even a C may precede or follow a B element, but elements D, E ... n are observed to follow their presupposed. In this respect, we present the following sentences as illustrating the points made here:

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1. Contextual meaning is not the same thing as sentence function which is only one instance of contextual meaning.
 2. We reiterate that these types do not qualify for the membership of a class because of their morphology, otherwise the types would not be multivalent.

- i) ///He said // if we liked to // we could come.///
 F C B
- ii) ///He said // since he realized // we were not willing//,
 F C D
- he would not insist any more.///
 B

But apart from the general constraint imposed because of progression on depth scale, the mobility of B itself is observed to vary. The 'degree of mobility' enjoyed by B is treated as the criterion for its further subclassification.

2a. The normal order of F and B elements is observed to be FB in that order. But the conditioning B is freer in movement than the other two: it may precede, follow or be included within the presupposed clause. Consider as an example the sentence below:

///If the veils were lifted from your eyes, // you
 would be blasted and destroyed.///
 Sc-STR = $B^X F$. (F.F., p.57)

This sequence of the elements may be changed without changing the contextual meaning of the item, except to that extent which is a result of the change of order¹. Compare the above with the following changed versions.

- i) ///You would be blasted and destroyed, // if the veils
 were lifted from your eyes.//
 Sc-STR = FB^X
- ii) ///You would - ((if the veils were lifted from your
 eyes))- be blasted and destroyed.///
 Sc-STR = $F(B^X)$.

2b. In contrast the additioning clause may either follow or be included within its presupposed. It may be included within a clause only

1. All changes are meaningful, but the meaning of the change may be noticeable at a primary degree of delicacy in description or at a very delicate stage. Where we assume "no change in meaning" the phrase must be interpreted as: 'the change in meaning is so delicate that it may at this stage be entirely ignored'.

///It was his duty, ((he decided,)) to give Robin
a warning tip.///

(A-S.A., p.216)

2d. The above statements on sequence are modified for certain subclasses of the dependent secondary clause classes. Reasons for such modification are stated in detail.

3. There are three generally stateable types of clauses that may expound the conditioning class. These may be roughly described as:

- a) Clauses with P-Finite
- b) Clauses with P-Nonfinite, and
- c) Clauses without P.

Apart from these, is the multivalent type capable of expounding a class of interrogative clauses as well.¹

3a. The exponent type with P-Finite are further subdivided into three sub-types, i.e.,

- i) SP in that order, with a particular sub-class of items at S.
- ii) CSP in that order, with a particular sub-class of items at C.
- iii) ASP in that order with a particular sub-class of items at A.

Since to clauses of this type the same contrastive choices of Mood and Theme are not open², these structures as such are not related to either the system of Mood or of Theme. Purely morphologically at a degree of very primary delicacy perhaps it may be justifiable to say that SP here is the same general type as the SP exponent of the affirmative, as CSP and ASP are of thematic classes. But since there does not seem any descriptive gain in making this statement, we treated the above three enumerated types as primarily distinct from the types exponent of the affirmative/thematic classes.

1. See Chapter IIB, 4a, p. 87 above.

2. See Independent Clause Classes, and the system of Theme Chapters IIB above and IIE 1 below, respectively.

3a.i Items that may belong to the conditioning type SP must select one of the items at S from the list below:

- I. Whoever
 Whichever
 Whatever
- II. No matter { What
 { Who
 { Which

To differentiate the conditioning SP from the affirmative SP structures the former is written as $S^X P$. Both the selection of an item from the lists above and the order of SP is crucial to this type. This is not a "favourite" type of conditioning, and did not occur in the analysed text. A constructed example is presented below:

///Whoever comes // we're not going to call the strike off.//
 Sc-STR = $B^X F$ STR of Kl. at $B^X = S^X P$.

3a.ii In list II of the items above, "no matter" is treated as part of the nominal group at S^X . Its status is that of a "sub-modifier"¹, but it is a sub-modifier restricted to sub-modify that class of words which may most generally be stated as 'wh - ' word, whether in the nominal group or at 'a' in the adverbial group. The fact that it may modify two separate primary classes of words does not raise any problems, considering that in 'very' and 'rather' we have items with exactly the same kind of potentiality. However, unlike 'very' and 'rather', 'no matter' may not submodify any other class in the nominal group except the 'wh - ' word. On the other hand, no sub-modifier capable of submodifying other classes of words in the nominal group appear to sub-modify a 'wh - ' word. Treating this feature as 'complimentary', we maintain that 'no matter' is part of the nominal group when it submodifies a 'h' or 'm' class of word.

1. See Nominal Group Chapter IIIA below.

If we compare the difference between "who says that" and "No matter who says that" the presence of "no matter" in a clause seems to restrict its potentialities as the exponent of a class of clause.

3a.iii In agreement with the above observation we notice that clauses with items from list II at S are univalently conditioning while clauses with list I at S are multivalent as they may expound a rankshifted clause acting as S in clause structure. So:

Whoever comes is welcome in this house.
 $[S \quad P] = S \quad P \quad A \quad A$
 Kl-STR = S P A A.

3a.iv The type C^XSP , like the previous type, must maintain that order of the elements of its structure. Therefore $CP((S))$ is not considered to be the same primary type, even if the selection of the items at C was the same in both cases. Items allowed at C here are the ones listed above for S, in 3a.i.

Again the C^XSP type with items from list I at C is multivalent while that with an item from II is not. The multivalent C^XSP type may expound a rankshifted clause or, rarely, but acceptably a reported clause. Examples of the type in all three syntactic functions are given below:

- i) //Whichever you prefer // we will be glad to provide it//.
 $Sc-STR = B^XF \quad Kl-STR \text{ of } B^X = C^XSP$
- ii) //Whichever you prefer can be provided on demand//
 $[C \quad S \quad P] = S \quad P \quad A$
 $Kl = F \quad Kl-STR = SPA$
- iii) //He was wondering // whatever you'd say to that//
 $Sc-STR = FB'' \quad Kl-STR \text{ of } B'' = C''SPA$

The multivalence of the type raises no problem in identification since both rankshifted and reported clauses demand a relevant structural

feature of specific kind in the text, which features clearly establish the identity of items such as above.

Like the previous, this type is not a "favourite" selection for conditioning. There were two examples one in each text, studied.

3a.v The most "favourite" selection of conditioning type is that of $A^X SP$, where again both the features of order and a particular list of items exponent of A^X are simultaneously required. This general type is subdivided into two subtypes to correspond to two subclasses of the conditioning clause.

The basis of the subclassification of the clauses is the degree of the mobility of B^X expounded by the two classes. We have defined B^X as the most mobile dependend element, but certain instances of the dependent clause entirely fixed in sequence with reference to their presupposed element are also recognized as instances of B^X . The reasons for this are stated where this particular sub-class and its exponent type is considered. The type specific to this particular class of B^X is called 'Subtype II($A^X SP$)', while the other is referred to as sub-type I.

3a.vi Sub-type I of the type $A^X SP$ can select, context permitting, any of the items listed below as the exponent of A^X . The list is divided into two sets, A: consisting of items which expound A^X in conditioning clauses where a reversion of the order of SP will result in a change of the meaning and exponential abilities of the type. B: consists of items the selection of which at element A^X completely prohibits any reversion of SP order.

A: When/whenever Where/wherever	B: after although as as if as far as as long as as soon as as though because before by the time (that) considering (that) except that/if granted (that) in case in order that in view) inspite) of the fact that if like (= as) No matter (why (when (where (how once provided (that) so that the day (when the time { the minute {that though unless until while whether or not
------------------------------------	--

The list is representative rather than exhaustive. Every item in the list has occurred at least once in the texts, though items such as 'if', 'since', 'when', 'as' and 'because' are very frequent. All these items are capable of being submodified by items such as 'just', 'only', 'even' and a few others.

3a.vii The Sub-type I may be multivalent when A^x is expounded by items:

when (+ ever)
where(+ ver), and
if

These clauses may expound the conditioning, additioning and reported clause classes. In spoken language the intonational and tonal information, too complex to be stated here in detail, may be exploited for identification where there is any doubt. Whether the text is written or spoken, the co-text is a help. Below are presented some examples, which are then modified to illustrate how the same item may expound all three dependent clause classes.

- B^x: i) ///We were watching a little plane..... // when Johnny shouted.///
 Sc-STR = F ... B^x (F.F., p.37)
- ii) ///If the planes were high up // he liked us to lie on our back // to watch them.///
 Sc-STR = B^x FB^x (F.F., p.37)
- iii) /// let me be exact // where exactitude is impossible.///
 Sc-STR = FB^x (F.F., p.221)

Items under consideration are the ones with underlined A^x elements. Consider these, when expounding reported clauses (the exponent of F element has been modified to suit the demand relation).

- B": i) ///Shall I tell you // when Johnny shouted? ///
 Sc-STR = FB"
- ii) ///He wanted to know // if the planes were high up.///
 Sc-STR = FB"
- iii) ///I know perfectly well // where exactitude is impossible // and where it isn't ///
 Sc-STR = FB"&B"

Consider example ii) above, which is ambiguous as it stands: the sentence structure could be either FB^x or FB" as assigned here. The check used in such cases is to substitute "if" by "whether" - if this

change does not affect the contextual meaning of the item the instance of B is considered reported, otherwise it is treated as B^x . The "if" clause may not expound the additioning class but where-and when-clauses may, as shown below:

- B^+ : i) ///I can never forget that dreadful moment // when Johnny shouted (for help).///
 Sc-STR = FB^+
- ii) ///Let me be exact on a point // where exactitude is impossible.///
 Sc-STR = FB^+

All clauses with items 'when' and 'where' at A are multivalent in another direction: they may expound a rankshifted clause either acting as element S in clause structure or q in nominal groups. Thus for example:

- i) ///The time when Johnny shouted / marked / the end of a phase in the game.///
 Item underlined acting as q to "the time"
 = Nom.gp at S.
- ii) ///When Johnny shouted does not concern us.///
 We want to know // when the fire was first noticed.///
 Item underlined acting as S in the first Kl.
 Sc-STR = F.FB".

With item "if" at A the clause may not expound a q element, but it can act as S, though rarely. So:

If the planes were high up was never discovered.

3a.viii Element A^x of Sub-type II may be expounded by one of the following items:

than
 as
 that

More delicately clauses with any one of these items at A^x may be regarded as a separate type from the other two, since the selection of a

specific item from the list makes the 'demand' for the presupposed more specific. This statement is elaborated below; clauses are called than-K1, as-K1 and that-K1 to distinguish them from each other.

3a.ix The sub-type II expounds a restricted class of B^x , which are fixed in sequence. If B^x is defined crucially by reference to its mobility in sentence, this step needs to be justified. This justification may be presented in negative or positive terms.

3a.ixa Negatively we can say: the clause being dependent must belong to a secondary dependent clause class. Since, clearly, it is neither additioning nor reported, it may be considered conditioning.

3a.ixb The positive reason is more acceptable and involves us in a discussion of some clauses of the sub-type I. Consider for example¹ the following item:

///He doesn't love her // because she is his daughter///
Sc-STR = PB^x

The item is ambiguous in contextual meaning. It may lend itself to either of the two interpretations:

- i) Because she is his daughter (= The reason being that she is his daughter) he doesn't love her
- ii) He loves her not because she is his daughter, (but because she is such a loveable person anyway).

Where the co-text or context suggests the first meaning, the element B^x is mobile and the sentence may be written either as B^xF or PB^x , without changing the meaning; but if the second interpretation is suggested the element B^x has a fixed place in sequence vis-a-vis its presupposed element - the sentence may only be written as PB^x .

1. This example was first brought to my notice by Dr. R.D. Huddleston, of the Department of English and General Linguistics, University of Edinburgh.

3a.ixc As a result, we must at this degree of delicacy allow for a fixed B^X . This being the case the other fixed clauses of sub-type II may be regarded as capable of expounding a fixed B^X element. Their allocation to any other clause class would be justified only if more features were in common between clauses of the type and that particular clause class. A summary of the features common to members of the various dependent clauses and to the sub-type II is stated below:

Sub-type II	Class at B^X	Class at B^+	Class at B''
I Order:			
follow) be included) ^{F1} in)	follow) precede) be included) ^{F1} in)	follow) be included) ^{F1} in)	follow) precede) ^{F1} include) ^{F1}
II Presupposed K1:			
A particular type	any	any	A particular type
III Tone Group²:			
One T Gp	One T Gp	Separate T Gp for Ag K1.	One T Gp

The table shows that the exponents of all three secondary elements may follow their presupposed item, but neither the additioning nor the reported is further subclassified at a more delicate stage by reference to "only follow". This, as shown above through "because", is exactly what happens in a subdivision of the class at B^X . There is a particular place in sentence structure, filled by such a class of B^X and sub-type II may fill these places, given that certain conditions follow.

1. F used to signify the "presupposed" whether F or not.
2. These statements on T Gp are 'approximate' in delicacy. For instance with structures FB^X and FB^+ , both in 'normal' order, FB^X may be said on one T Gp, while FB^+ on two separate ones. But if the normal order changes and the first structure is altered to B^XF then two separate T Gps for two separate clauses may be selected.

The conditions relate to the nature of the presupposed: like the reported clauses, sub-type II demands a particular type as its presupposed but the particular types demanded by the two are not in common.

Tonal evidence puts the sub-type II, the conditioning and the reported clauses in one category, while in orthography unlike the additioning clauses, the sub-type II may not be punctuated by commas.

In general, then, clauses of sub-type II have more in common with the conditioning than with the other two classes of clauses, and are treated here as members of this subclass of the conditioning class.

3a.x A than-clause demands as its presupposed a type of clause which carries within its primary or secondary structure a "Comparative Class" of item. This may necessitate a move on the rank-scale perhaps down even to morpheme before an element B, may be formally recognized as B^x of this subclass. Such "shunting"¹ is not only allowed in the theory, it is considered essential because of the complex patternings in language. The class 'comparative' is labelled thus, squinting to its general contextual meaning but the class itself is determined on syntactic ground. The criteria for determining "comparative" class may vary from rank to rank and from one class of unit to another class at the same rank. Since the groups to which the comparative element is relevant are the nominal and the adverbial groups, the element P of the presupposed is only indirectly relevant through the type specification ASP, and for recognition of elements S, C, and Z.

Below are presented examples of than-clauses together with their presupposed type. The examples are divided into two sets according to whether the comparative element is in a nominal group or in an adverbial

1. Cf. M.A.K. Halliday: 'Categories'.

group. Such elements are underlined:

A : Nominal group.

- i) ///She was taller // than I was///
Sc-STR = FB^X , Comparative 'h' at C (F.F., p.29)
- ii) ///I have given the Church far more attention // than
it deserves.///
Sc-STR = FB^X , Comparative 'm' in group at C.
(A-S.A., p.167)
- iii) ///There was some thing better in the shop // than I
expected.///
Sc-STR = FB^X , Comparative 'q' in group at C.

When the comparative element is present in the group at S, the than-clause may either be included within the presupposed or follow the clause - though particular instances may have their own sets of restriction, thus compare:

- i) ///More intelligent people ((than they are)) would
have informed the authorities.///
Sc-STR = $F((B^X))$ Comparative 'm' in group at S.
- ii) ///No more can be added to the statement // than has
already been said.///
Sc-STR = FB^X Comparative 'h' in group at S.

Here sentence ii) may be rewritten as $F((B^X))$, but sentence i) may not be rewritten as FB^X .

The comparative element is relevant to both secondary classes of the adverbial group. These secondary classes are called the 'Adverbial' and the 'Prepositional' respectively¹. In the adverbial the comparative class may be selected at a sub-modifier or at element 'a', or a. The structure of the prepositional is 'pc'²; at c there always operates a

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- 1. The word 'group' is omitted when we talk of the secondary classes, not because these are not groups but in order to distinguish these from the primary class called "Adverbial group". See Adverbial Group, Chapter IIIB p. 229 below.
 - 2. Ibid, also see the Nominal Group Chapter IIIA, pp 200-211.

rankshifted nominal group. Therefore the possibilities of the selection of a comparative element in the prepositional are identical with all the possibilities open to a nominal group. In addition, however, the prepositional may select a comparative sub-modifier to the element p. Some examples of the adverbial and the prepositional are presented below:

B: Adverbial Group:

- i) ///They like my pictures more // than I do.///
Comparative 'a' at A (F.F., p.7)
- ii) ///She sang more beautifully // than she had done before.///
Comparative submodifier in Advbl at A.
- iii) ///He was in a worse temper // than I expected.///
Comparative in c in Prep at A.
- iv) ///He is more in a mess // than you realize.///
Comparative submodifier to p in Prep at A.

No than-clauses are recognized without an element P. Therefore if item 'than' is followed by the nominal or adverbial groups, only one possibility is admitted: that of regarding the item 'than' as a part of the structure of the prepositional. Such prepositionals are normally rankshifted to act as 'q' in a nominal group. To illustrate such than-prepositionals:

- i) ///The mind cannot hold more than so much ...///
(F.F., p.7)
- ii) ///I can't think of anything more ghastly than all
that fake Regency .../// (A-S.A., p.262)

The underlined are acting as rankshifted q^1 to 'more' and 'more ghastly' respectively.

1. For detailed discussion of rankshifted and nonrankshifted q elements see Nominal Group, Chapter IIIA, pp. 208-215 below.

Like other conditioning clauses, the than-clause may either select a finite P or a non-finite P. Clauses with a non-finite P are considered below¹ in general, but it would be convenient to deal with the than-clauses with a non-finite P at this point. When a than-clause has a non-finite P, it may not select an element S in the same clause. Some instances of the non-finite type are provided below:

- i) ///I'd no more have mentioned a learned thing to
 them // than flown./// (A-S.A., p.272)
- ii) ///It was cheaper to sit on the couch // than drink
 coffee in a little shop; // it was cheaper even //
 than walking in the country./// (F.F., p.111)

The 'order' of SP in a than-clause may be 'reversed', approximately without changing the contextual meaning of the item. The contrast between A^xSP and $A^xP((S))$ in this case corresponds to certain 'stylistic' and 'registral' considerations. It may be observed that when the exponent of S is a 'heavy' item there is a tendency to reverse the SP order, thus:

///She looks no prettier // than does the other girl with
a pink satin ribbon in her hair.///

Here the entire underlined item expounds the element S.

3a.xi Sub-type II with 'as' at A^x shows a considerable degree of likeness to clauses with 'than' at A^x . 'As' is a multivalent item expounding A^x in both sub-types I and II, and also certain elements in nominal and adverbial group structure.

As the exponent of A^x in sub-type I, like 'because', it may or may not expound a fixed B^x . As examples of the fixed B^x consider the following with 'as' at A:

1. See 3b-3biiia of this Chapter (pp. 122-135)

- i) ///Yet neither the general nor the god on the airfield
..... altered my life // as Phillip altered it.///

(F.F., p.47)

- ii) ///If his family were a second best // as he thought
them // he had asked for it///

(A-S.A., p.136)

In contrast, there are mobile B^x clauses with 'as' at A^x (in sub-type I), as the following examples show:

- i) ///As I remember him and his breathing // it occurs
to me // that what he had was lung cancer.///

(F.F., p.25)

- ii) ///They made a handsome couple // as they stood on
the battlements of Kronborg // and watched the
ice breaking up in the Sound///

(A-S.A., p.136)

In both cases, the selection of the presupposed item is not specifically restricted to a particular type, as is the case when 'as' expounds A^x in sub-type II clause. In the latter case the type demanded as a presupposed clause by an as-clause, is characterized by the selection of 'as' as a sub-modifier in permitted places¹ in the nominal or adverbial groups operating at an appropriate element in the structure of the said clause. The following examples will illustrate this point:

- i) ///I stood as near // as I dared.///

Submodifier in Advbl at A

(F.F., p.61)

- ii) ///The situation was never as simple // as we envisaged.///

Submodifier in Nom. gp at C

(F.F., p.51)

A consideration of the presupposed type throws light on the multivalent nature of the item² 'as'. 'As' may expound element A^x in sub-types I and II,

1. See Nominal Group, Chapter IIIA p.200-203 and Adverbial Group, Chapter IIIB p. 228 below.
2. An interesting question is whether 'as' as the exponent of A^x and of submodifiers is the same item or two separate items. Logically, we should recognize as many items 'as' as there are elements that it may expound, and we are, in effect, doing so, by calling it a 'multivalent item', and by stating its exponential range, while at the same time recognizing that in graphic or phonic substance we have a piece that 'looks' and 'sounds' alike, approximately speaking.

it may also expound the submodifier in the nominal and adverbial groups. In its latter function, unlike groups initiated by ~~than~~, it need not necessarily be rankshifted; for example the groups in the presupposed clauses above i.e. 'as near' and 'as simple' are not rankshifted. The as-clause itself is multivalent and in that capacity may expound a rankshifted clause acting as q in a recursive q-structure Nominal group. As an example consider:

//Get a jug of cold water, as cold as you can find it.///

The underlined item here is treated as a rankshifted clause acting as q to the non-rankshifted q "as cold".

Again, like the than-clause an as-clause in order to be recognized as a clause must have an element P and the reversion of SP order in an as-clause corresponds to stylistic considerations as in than-clauses. Compare the two sentences below:

- i) ///I stood as near // as I dared.///
- ii) ///I stood as near // as did the old man who told you
this story.///

3a.xii A that-clause of sub-type II is more like than-clause in one respect: ~~unlike~~ like the than-clause, it never expounds a B^x clause of the general kind under sub-type I. The clause that it presupposes must carry either item 'so' or 'such' at appropriate places in the structure of the nominal or the adverbial group operating as an element of the structure of the said clause.

Like most items from word classes, these items are highly multivalent and may expound various elements of the structure of the nominal and adverbial groups. In general both may expound both 'h' and 'a' elements,

- iii) ///Half my immediate ancestry is so inscrutable // that
I seldom found it worth bothering about.///
(-; h = C) (F.F., p.9)
- iv) ///She had retreated so fast and so far // that one
high heel was in my little ocean.///
(-; a = A, -; a = A) (F.F., p.21)
- v) ///There was anarchy in the mind and anarchy in
the world at large, two states so similar/that the
one might have produced the other.///
(: oh -; q = apposition to gp at C) (F.F., p.131)
- vi) ///...this was so unlike my fevered fantasies // that
she had no immediate attraction for me.///
(-; p c = A) (F.F., p.111)

Unlike the other two clauses of this sub-type no reversion of SP order is acceptable in these clauses, neither may the element S be absent.

A that-clause is highly multivalent¹, and genuine cases of ambiguity may arise to be resolved by reference to the co-text only. The that-clause may expound, in addition to B^xII,

- i) a B"
- ii) a rankshifted clause acting as S
- iii) a rankshifted clause acting as q in the nominal group.

It is with reference to B" and B^x, that the clause becomes highly ambiguous. If at any time all the text we had was, for example, the following piece, we would not know which of the structures should be assigned to the sentence:

///It is such good news // that he is coming sooner //
than we expected.///
Sc-STR (i) = FB^xC^x; Sc-STR (ii) = FB"C^x.

Which of these structures may instantially be assigned to the piece depends on features which are not primarily grammatical, but separate

1. See Reported Clauses below (Chapter IIC 3)

grammatical descriptions corresponding to each set of contextual features should be possible once the ambiguity is resolved. Examples of that-clause acting as rankshifted clauses are given below:

- i) That you couldn't use the cloakroom was a nuisance.

K1-STR = SPC; R-S K1 at S; S = [ASPC]

- ii) The way that he's doing it requires much concentration.

K1-STR = SPC; R-S K1 at q in gp at S;

STR of gp at S = m h q; q = [ASPC]

3b. The general type of clause with non-finite P capable of expounding B^x can be further subdivided on morphological grounds as follows:

- i) Type with non-finite P and no element S.

- ii) " " " " " an " S.

- iii) " " " " " no " S,
but an initial element A^x with a restricted
set of items capable of operating a A^x .

Non-finite P is itself further subclassified into (i) Non-finite P - Participial and (ii) Non-finite P - Infinitival. "Participial" includes both present and past participial with ' - ing' and ' - en', while the infinitival may be with or without 'to'. The choice of participial v. infinitival being systemic¹, a combination of both in the same verbal group is unacceptable. Where more than one verbal groups in 'aspect'² expound one P element of the clause structure the selection at the first verbal group in sequence is regarded as the selection of the entire P at the primary degree of delicacy. Thus compare the verbal pieces below:

- i) Running to catch (the bus)

- ii) To have been running to catch (the bus)

1. See Verbal Group, Chapter IIIC. p. 241 below.

2. Ibid.

The underlined represent the first verbal groups in 'aspect': the first P is participial, the second infinitival. A more delicate analysis would separate the two verbal groups in the two pieces and state the individual selections at each group.

3b.i Below are presented examples of the clauses¹ of the sub-type (i) the structure of which may be stated as:

-S +P-Nonfinite².

Examples are arranged according to the subdivisions of the P into participial and infinitival:

I. Present-participial:

- i) ///I sat my bike on the downward slope of the bridge //
waiting for a green light///
Sc-STR = FB^X (F.F., p.79)
- ii) ///Rose Lorimer ((struggling with weighed down shopping
baskets)) made her immense way among the marble and
mosaic of the Corner House...///
Sc-STR = F((B^X)).... (A-S.A., p.16)
- iii) ///.....struggling with his depression // he made his way
to his study///
Sc-STR = B^XF (A-S.A., p.16)

II. Past-participial:

- i) ///Weighed down with doubts// he made his way to
his study///
Sc-STR = B^X ...F... (A-S.A., p.16)
- ii) ///I had her now for whole minutes // islanded out of
all complexities of living.///
Sc-STR = FB^X (F.F., p.83)
- iii) ///Inge ((taken with a sudden romantic wish to look at
her early roses at midnight)) had caught Irmgard
coming back to the house.///
Sc-STR = F((B^X)) (A-S.A., p.257)

-
1. The non-finite P clauses will be referred to as ' -ing-Kls', ' -en-Kl' and 'to-Kl', to correspond to the three non-finite sub-classes of P.
 2. To be read as 'minus element S with element P-nonfinite'.

III. Infinitival:¹

- i) //I shall use all my hitherto latent historical talents // to produce them.//
Sc-STR = FB^x (A-S.A., p.151)
- ii) //Then, ((to soften the priggishness)), he said.....//
Sc-STR = F(B^x) (A-S.A., p.56)
- iii) //To annoy John, // he added//
Sc-STR = B^xF (A-S.A., p.56)

All clauses of this type are multivalent: they may all expound rankshifted clauses. When acting in rankshift, the types exemplified under I and III above may act either as element S or C of the clause structure² or element q of the nominal group structure; type II may only act as q³ in a nominal group at S/C/A. Examples of such rankshift provided below are underlined and their syntactic functions in clause/group structure is stated in brackets.

I. Clauses rankshifted as S/C:

- i) //Looking at me from the bush was the fat and freckled face of Miss Pringle.//
K1-STR = SPC (R-S K1 = S) (F.F., p.217)
- ii) //...to understand must include pictures from those early days also.//
K1-STR = SPCA (R-S K1 = S) (F.F., p.9)
- iii) //Our mistake is to confuse our limitations with the bounds of possibility.//
K1-STR = SPC (R-S K1 = C) (F.F., p.9)
- iv) //To advertise learning by disregard of dress was to be odd//
K1-STR = SPC (R-S K1s = S ..C) (A-S.A., p.16)

-
1. The infinitival with 'to', only, is relevant to the type expounding B^x; for those 'without' 'to', see the Verbs in Aspect, Chapter IIIC p.256 below.
 2. It must be noted that when clauses under I and II are rankshifted to expound element C in the clause, this imposes a restriction on the element P of the clause which can be expounded only by an item of "to be".
 3. As usual quotative examples are disregarded as for instance in "weighed down by doubt is not what he said".

II. Clauses rankshifted as q:

- i) //.... - to the Vanburghs, like herself some of the
first real ladies to win success on the stage...//
E/K1-STR = A (R-S K1 = q to 'ladies'.) (A-S.A., p.71)
- ii) //I'm not prone to make polite refusals.....//
E/K1-STR = C (R-S K1 = q to 'prone') (A-S.A., p.182)
- iii) //She treated Robin with a little-controlled impatience
for his ignorance of the cosmopolitan values
reigning in her circle of London intelligentsia.//
E/K1-STR = A (R-S K1 = q to 'values') (A-S.A., p.202)
- iv) //....Chapel was middle, // was the class grimly keeping
its feet out of the mud.//
E/K1-STR = C (R-S K1 = q to 'class') (F.F., p.101)
- v) //It had taken him some years to acquire the brand of
cultural talk demanded by Marie Helene for her
parties//
E/K1-STR = S (A-S.A., p.202)
(R-S K1s, 'to-K1'¹ = q to 'it', '-en-K1'² = q₂ to 'brand')
- vi) //...Gerald caught a glimpse of the minute, determined
figure in battered felt hat and dirty rain coat
dwarfed to a speck'...//
E/K1-STR = C (R-S K1 = q₂ to "figure") (A-S.A., p.187)

3b.ia Various problems in identification arise due to the multivalent nature of the clauses. Examples under I, when expounding the element S in clause structure are fairly unambiguous, capable of being identified by reference to other elements of the structure of the same clause (Cf. examples (i) and (ii) under I above), but when they expound the element C in a clause, they may be interpreted in two ways. Consider the following pairs:

1. See f.n. 1 p.124 above. 'Discontinuous q' is discussed in para 3b.ib of this Chapter. Also see Nominal Group, p.214 below.
2. For the concept of q₁ q₂ ... see Nominal Group, p.212-216. The element q enters in recursive structure to which the scale of depth may be applied, or in serial to which this scale may be irrelevant. q₁ q₂ ... are serial elements, while q_a q_b are recursive.

- i)a. Our mistake is to confuse our limitations with the bounds of possibility.
- b. To confuse our limitations with the bounds of possibility is our mistake.
- ii)a. Our mistake is confusing our limitations with the bounds of possibility.
- b. Confusing our limitations with the bounds of possibility is our mistake.

The second (b) examples of both pairs are examples of rankshifted clauses acting as S, unambiguously, but the first (a) may be assigned to different secondary structures and types, to correspond to two different interpretations, these being:

1. We confuse our limitations with the bounds of possibility. This is our mistake.
2. We can foresee that the mistake we've already made is now going to confuse for us our limitations with the bounds of possibility.

If the co-text/context suggests the first of the two interpretations, then the items underlined are treated as instance of rankshifted clauses expounding the element C in clause structure. With the second interpretation, the pieces beginning "to confuse possibility" and "confusing possibility" are not treated as clauses in their own right¹, but as part of the entire clause as such, with the verbal groups "to confuse" and "confusing" standing in "aspect" and "tense"² relation to "is" in ia) and iia) respectively. The analysis of the clauses would be as follows:

- i) //Our mistake / is to confuse / our limitations ...etc.//
K1-STR = SPC; P³ = Vbl gpl -: Vbl. gp2

-
1. In other words the pieces are no longer to be regarded as member of the type that expounds E^x.
 2. For 'tense' see Verbal Group, Chapter IIIC, p. 247 below.
 3. Verbal groups in aspect relation are said to expound only one P. The symbol ' -: ' is used to show group-boundary in such cases.

ii) //Our mistake / is confusing / our limitations ...etc.//

K1-STR = SPC; P = Vbl gp, present-in-present.

The check used in the present study to find out whether interpretation 1 was acceptable or not was to reverse the S-C order, as in the pairs cited above. If this is the acceptable interpretation such change will produce only that change in meaning which is common in the reversing of S-C, in general. For interpretation 2, there are separate criteria for the two types of verbal groups. If they are in aspect-relation, the first group may be substituted by an exponent of 'future' tense (e.g. 'will' or '(is going to)') with only that change in meaning which is a result of such change in all instances; in the second case the 'tense' may be freely varied (e.g. is confusing, confuses, has confused etc.) again with only that change in meaning which results from the change in 'tense'. In none of these cases is the check meaningful without the cotextual/contextual help.

3b.1b The to-clause and the ing-clause further present problems in deciding whether they expound, in a given instance,

- a) a B^x element
- b) a discontinuous q in the nominal group expounding S
- c) a q in the nominal group expounding C

The function of such clauses as B^x may be checked by the "mobility" of the item from sentence-final to sentence-initial place.¹ If the item is neither an exponent of the element S/C in a clause nor of B^x in the sentence then it may be the exponent of q in the nominal groups expounding S, or C or A in clause structure.

An element q normally follows the relevant h: 'following' does not mean immediate contiguity since q elements may be "recursive"² or "successive"², and therefore, logically some q elements would be separated from the relevant

1. "Sentence" being used here to refer to the relevant sub-complex only.

2. See Nominal Group, Chapter IIIA p.212 below.

h by the preceding q elements. This feature is not regarded as "discontinuity". The term "discontinuous q" applies only to that instance of q element which is separated from the relevant h by the occurrence of other elements of clause structure. If such interrupting elements in a given clause are P, C and A in that order the clause structure may be shown as S((PCA)). Such discontinuous q elements may occur at the end of the clause or rarely at the end of clauses forming a sub-complex, provided certain conditions are observed. These conditions are:

- a) Either the item 'it' or 'there' should expound h in the nominal group at S of the main clause.
- b) And in conjunction to the above there should be at least one element C or A preceding the discontinuous q item. So that of the clauses below only the second qualifies for consideration in this respect:

It is to go there¹ (STR = SPA)
 It is nice to go there. (STR = S((PC)))

Some examples of ing- and to-clauses acting as discontinuous q are presented below:

- i) //There was no penicillin, no wonder-drug to control and reduce infection in those days.//
 K1-STR = S((PC)) R-S K1 = q to 'there' (F.F., p.69)
- ii) //It does me good to see you.//
 K1-STR = S((PCC)); R-S K1 = q to 'it' (A-S.A., p.101)
- iii) //It's been the greatest privilege to me knowing Simon.//
 K1-STR = S((PCA)); R-S K1 = q to 'it' (A-S.A., p.101)

Some exceptions to the general rules were recognized, so that ing- and to-clauses were regarded as q in the nominal group expounding C even though the main clause presented both environment a) and b) stated above. These exceptions can be stated as:

-
1. The ambiguity of pieces such as this has been discussed above, under 3b.ia in this Chapter.

- i) Items 'too', 'only', 'somewhat', or 'enough' acting as m or submodifier in groups at C or A, immediately preceding ing- or to-clause.
- ii) Or any of the items from the following list expounding h in the nominal group expounding C or A preceding the item in question; the list is:

likely
way
reason
late
early
ready
prepared
willing
bound
able
unable
the one
some thing

In both these cases clauses of this type are regarded as q in the nominal group immediately preceding the clause under question. As examples consider the following:

- i) //It was all a little too good to be true.//
K1-STR = SPC; R-S K1 = q to 'good' (A-S.A., p.167)
- ii) //....only, its the only way to learn....//
K1-STR = ASPC; R-S K1 = q to 'way' (A-S.A., p.202)
- iii) //.....it isn't likely to be very durable.//
K1-STR = SPC; R-S K1 = q to 'likely' (A-S.A., p.297)

3b.1c Since the en-clause may either expound B^x or q, it normally does not raise any problems of identification, it being easy to establish the identity of B^x element and hence of its exponent. Of the ing- and to-clauses, the latter are more frequently found rankshifted to act as both S in clause structures, q and discontinuous q in group structures.

3b.1i The type of clause with a non-finite P and an S element is again subdivided into (a) the type with participial P and (b) the type with infinitival P.

3b.ia More delicately the participial P clause with the element S may be subdivided firstly by reference to past- and present-participial and secondly by reference to whether item 'with' or 'without' precedes the exponent of the S element. These classifications cut across each other.

In the ing-clauses when the item 'with' is selected, the contextual meaning of the clause at a certain degree of delicacy remains the 'same' as when 'with' is not selected. Thus compare:

///She leaned back in her chair // her breasts
swelling with indignation.///
Sc-STR = FB^X (B^X = SP^XA) (A-S.A., p.172)

///She leaned back in her chair // with her
breasts swelling with indignation.///
Sc-STR = FB^X (B^X = ASP^XA)

Equally, with en-clauses the selection or non-selection of 'with' is irrelevant to the contextual meaning of the clause at a certain degree of delicacy. Compare:

///She walked away from them // her face flushed
with indignation.///
Sc-STR = FB^X (B^X = SP^XA)

///She walked away from them /// with her face
flushed with indignation.///
Sc-STR = FB^X (B^X = ASP^XA)

The item 'with' in an en-clause is a help in identifying a clause as the exponent of B^X. The word class of verb 'past-participial' is capable of expounding the elements e and n in a nominal group and any item capable of expounding these elements when following h is treated as an example of non-rankshifted q. On the same grounds, if an item at h is followed by a word of 'past-participial' class, this word is treated as q, unless it has an element C or A accessory to it, in which case it may either

be an exponent of B^x or of a rankshifted q in the group structure. We can illustrate these points by the following:

- i) //The news received is not very hopeful.//
K1-STR = SPC en-word = Non-R-S q in S
- ii) ///Fresh news ((received early this morning)) is not very hopeful.///
Sc-STR = F(B^x) B^x = en-K1, STR = P^x AA
- iii) //Gerald saw the minute figure dwarfed to a speck by the distance//
K1-STR = SPC en-K1 = R-S q to "figure" in element C.

The first possibility raises the problem of deciding whether an en-word following an h-word is expounding a P^x or a nonrankshifted q element. But if the item 'with' precedes the past participial word, this is a clear case of a univalent item expounding a B^x . Thus:

///With somebody so terrified // we could not refuse help.///
Sc-STR = B^x F B^x = en-K1, STR = ASPA

3b.iib The clause with an infinitival P may not select an S element, without at the same time selecting item 'for' at A. There is no item exponent of one clause such as:

John to give to the geese

On the other hand we may have a B^x expounded by A + S + P^x type as in the following:

///Will you bring some stale buns// for John to give to the geese?///
Sc-STR = FB B^x B^x = to-K1, STR = ASP B^x A
(A-S.A., p.121)

3b.iic The status of these limited exponents of A in the participial and infinitival clauses of this particular type must be justified. It may be recalled that 'no matter'¹ is considered as a part of the nominal group

1. See 3a.ii above on p.106.

at S, on the ground that it cannot be separated from the whole group. The same is true of the list 'with/without/for'. However, there is one vital difference. 'No matter' may sub-modify a particular sub-class of words, while the selection or non-selection of with/without/for is a selection to a great extent specific to the types themselves. Further, the recognition of these as part of the nominal group would impose an additional statement regarding the nominal groups, while if, as is done here, these items are recognized as exponents of a fixed A element in types $A + S + P^X$, such a solution does not require a new general statement, 'fixity' of order being quite a common requirement in all types, ipso facto.

3b.iid The ing- and to-clauses with the element S may both also act rankshifted as the element S of the main clause. Constructed examples are presented below:

- i) // John singing so loud caused a stir.//
K1-STR = SPC, R-S K1 = S
- ii) // For John to hit a century was a rare event.//
K1-STR = SPC, R-S K1 = S

3b.iii The only other remaining non-finite type of clause expounding B^X has the structure $A^X P^X$, elements C and A not being crucially relevant. Element S must, however, not occur in such clauses. The primary word-class capable of rexpounding A^X , here consists of a list of the items abstracted from the lists, presented above under 3a.vi, the list being:

While
when
before
after
since
though
although
once
whetheror not¹
thus
with/without

1. When both occur in the same clause.

If the clause has a present participial P, which is a "favourite" selection at P in this type, the item may be highly univalent. Only the present participial P can combine with any of the items at A^x from the list above, while both the past participial and the infinitival may combine only with a limited selection of these.

3b.iiia An ing-clause was regarded as rankshifted to expound the element c of a pc structure of the prepositional, if immediately preceding the clause was a preposition such as:

in
on
by
for
to
at

The reasons for this decision are that when thus rankshifted the clause behaves like any other exponent of the A element, and that neither of the items in the list (except 'for') may occur except at p where they demand a c. The apparent disadvantage in following such practice is that a clause thus rankshifted may enter in presupposition relation with other elements of sentence structure. This is however a feature common to all rankshifted clauses whether acting as q or c or S or C, therefore we maintain the present mode of analysing such elements.

3c. The type of clauses without the element P may be further subdivided into:

- a)¹ $Z_1 Z_2$
- b) $A^x Z_1 Z_2$
- c) $A^x Z/A \dots$

3c.i Two nominal groups following each other in sequence are not necessarily in $Z_1 Z_2$ relation, since they may either enter in list relation

1. For the identification of Z elements see Chapter IIB of this Section.

or be in apposition to each other. The relationship between Z_1 and Z_2 is distinct from either of these. Consider for example:

///For Frank he was defiant....// his cheeks aflame///
 his blue eyes glowing at the future before him.///
 Sc-STR = F ...B^xB^x. (A-S.A., p.177)

The underlined represents an example of a $Z_1 Z_2$ clause, where the exponent of these elements are 'his cheeks' and 'aflame' respectively. Notice that unlike a list relation, interruption by a linking item is not possible, nor can 'aflame' be considered as in apposition to 'his cheeks' for obvious reasons. A characteristic of such $Z_1 Z_2$ elements is that a P with the item 'to be' may be introduced without primarily changing the contextual meaning of such a clause. Thus the above item in question may be rewritten as:

His cheeks being aflame

Such clauses are considered as the exponent of B^x since they are capable of occurring at the places in sentence structure which are associated with the occurrence of other B^x clauses.

3c.ii These clauses are potentially multivalent; since the absence of the element P may be an exponent of linking, it cannot be used to crucially define the $Z_1 Z_2$ relation. The co-text provides help in cases such as the one quoted above. If instead of the preceding clause at F we had the following arrangement, the value of the underlined nominal groups would be different from that assigned to them above:

///His blue eyes were happy // his cheeks aflame.///
 Sc-STR = F & F STR of K1 at &F = SC linked by -p.

Once the nominal groups have been identified as Z elements, it is easy to discover whether they are in $Z_1 Z_2$ relation or in Z Z serial

relation, by introducing a linking item between the groups. If the relationship is $Z_1 Z_2$, the resultant will either be a changed item contextually or an unacceptable item in English.

3c.iii For the type $A^x Z_1 Z_2$ both the presence of that class of A expounded by that class of items and the $Z_1 Z_2$ structure is required in conjunction. The item most frequently selected at A^x is "with" but other allowed items are as follows:

to
for
thus
while
when
without
once
whether or not¹

The type is multivalent, capable of expounding the element q in the nominal group. Such q elements are restricted to being 'contiguous' (i.e., non-discontinuous), therefore if an item in question may be separated from the nominal item it follows, it is treated as an exponent of B^x . To cite an example:

///It's a wonderful house.... // with gardens ablaze
with all colours.///
Sc-STR = F B^x (A-S.A., p.177)

3c.iv A P-less clause with one element Z (or Z elements in series) preceded by an A^x , may select any of the items at A^x from the lists under 3b.iii or 3a.vi above, but the most favourite selections are of 'if', 'since' and 'though'. An example is presented below:

///..... and his mood ((though hectic)) was in a
different key.///
Sc-STR = &F((B)) (A-S.A., p.177)

3c.v The selection of some items at A^x , for instance that of 'if'

1. When occurring within the same clause.

and 'though' may make the clauses of this type ambiguous. This arises from the fact that both these items may also act as a 'linker' between two words of the same class. As an example consider:

.... the country is pleasant if flat (A-S.A., p.151)

The item may be interpreted in two ways:

- i) the country is pleasant although it is flat
(or = is pleasant but flat)
- ii) If the country is flat, it will be pleasant.

It is clear that in the first case the underlined above will be regarded as the exponent of a nominal group with the structure h & h, while in the second case the item "if flat" must be regarded as an A^xZ conditioning type of clause. The check to be used is to test the mobility of "if flat", for instance, in this example. Where the contextual meaning remains approximately unchanged by such moving of the item, it may be regarded as an instance of B^x .

4. The above discussion presents the total of types recognized in the present work as capable of expounding the B^x element in sentence structure.

CHAPTER IIC 2 : Dependent Clause Class: Additioning.

1. The types of clauses capable of expounding the additioning clause class may be stated as follows:

- a) S^+P
- b) C^+SP
- c) A^+SP

Those elements which are not crucially relevant to the exponential ability of the type are not mentioned in the structures above; the order of the elements as stated is crucial in each sub-type.

1a. The type S^+P may more generally be regarded as the SP type, primarily associated with the affirmative clause class¹; the type is further brought to notice here by stating S^+ as opposed to S, because of the very restricted set of items capable of expounding h when the structure ' S^+P ' performs the function of an additioning clause. These items are as follows:

that
who
which

Examples of such clauses are presented below:

- i) *///His voice took on a sneering note // that surprised him.///*
 $Sc-STR = FB^+$ (A-S.A., p.61)
- ii) *///That was // what it sounded like to the smaller children, // who began to cry.///*
 $Sc-STR = FB^+C^+$ (A-S.A., p.86)
- iii) *///.....; so I had my earache near the stove // which was as comfortable a place as any.///*
 $Sc-STR =FB^+$ (F.F., p.67)

1. See Chapter IIB: Independent Clause Class specially paragraphs 3 and 3c (pp 51-53) above.

While all clauses of this type, capable of expounding the additioning class may also expound the affirmative class, not all affirmative types may expound the additioning class. All of these clauses may act as rankshifted clauses expounding the elements of clause or group structure. While all three types exemplified above may act as a rankshifted q in a nominal group, only the second and the third type may act as the element S in clause structure.

All three sub-types above are multivalent with reference to the reported clause class as well.

1b. The second type of clause: ' C^+SP ' is characterized by the selection of one of the following items at C^+ :

that
who/whom
which

Thus the list for both the exponents of S^+ and C^+ is the 'same' except for the item 'whom'. This type is not popularly selected to expound the additioning class. In the entire texts there were 10 and 6 such clauses in Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, respectively. An example of the type is presented below:

///.....she swore me to a secrecy // which I violate
now for the first time.///
Sc-STR = FB^+ (F.F., p.31)

Clauses of this type are multivalent as they may expound a B'' in the structure of a sentence. This does not raise difficulties in identification, because of the special nature of the demand relation between the reporting and reported clauses. When any member of this type is acting as a B'' the sub-class of reporting clause they require is the same as stated under 3a in Chapter IIB, above.¹

1. See page 51 above.

All members of the type except those with the item 'that' at C^+ may act as a rankshifted clause expounding either the element S in the clause or q in the nominal group. Where the clause with 'that' is concerned, we have a possible source of ambiguity as 'that' as an item may expound not only C^+ but also A^x and A'' . When 'that' expounds either of these elements, the clause may be rankshifted to q in a nominal group. For example consider:

- i) ///I had only one copy of Free Fall // that I had
 borrowed from the library.///
 Sc-STR = FB^+
- ii) ///Where's the copy of Free Fall that I have
 borrowed from the library?///
 Sc-STR = F Kl-STR = APS? R-S Kl = q in Nom at S.

The ambiguity arising from the multivalent nature of 'that' with reference to C^+ and A'' will be discussed when the multivalent nature of the items at A'' is considered.¹

1c. The exponent of the element A^+ in the type A^+SP is selected either from a two member list of the adverbial: "when" and "where", or from a list of prepositionals, the p element of which is expounded by any of the following preposition-words, provided they are followed by which/who/whom.

in
of
to
by
from
on
at

An example of the same is presented below:

1. See Chapter IIC 3 - Dependent Clause Class: Reported (especially, pages 150-153)

///Save for his sentimentality, ((of which she
regarded his infidelity as a by-product)), Marie
Helene thought her husband perfection.///

Sc-STR = F(B^+)

(A-S.A., p.66)

Clauses of this type with either 'when' or 'where' selected at A^+ , are multivalent with reference to the reported class and are discussed with other reported clauses in the next chapter. The additioning clauses were found to be the least "favourite" selection among the dependent clauses selected in the two texts¹.

2. Wherever any of the types mentioned above is multivalent with reference to the rankshifted q , there is a standard means of identification. In speech an additioning clause is likely to carry its own tone group, while a clause rankshifted to act as q would not be said on a fresh tone group. It is observed that in written texts, the additioning clauses are punctuated by commas in the majority of cases, though there is no one-to-one correspondence between the occurrence of the additioning clauses and such orthographic signals. Where orthographic punctuation-clue is missing, the structure of m , if any, was checked. Normally clauses of this type act as rankshifted q to those h elements of the group which carry the definite article "the" at element d_b in m ,² if the selection of h is singular. If the selection at h is plural, and if a rankshifted clause is acting as q either no element d or an item from d_a or d_b is selected in m .

The contextual meaning of an additioning clause and a q element is generally approximately the same: they both say something further about an item, but more delicately q elements may identify and contrast the

1. For details see Section III Comparison, Chapter III p. 308.

2. See Nominal Group p. 191 below.

qualified item with the unqualified ones¹. In the last resort, if formal checks fail in distinguishing an additioning or a rankshifted clause at q, appeal may be made to cotext/context, especially in written texts.

1. e.g. 'the girl in blue' as opposed to others 'not in blue'

CHAPTER IIC 3: Dependent Clause Class: Reported.

1. If we consider the tabulated statement in Chapter IIC 1 above¹ regarding features common to various secondary clause classes of the dependent clause class, we may notice that the reported clause is, in one respect, like the fixed B^x clauses: namely it requires a particular type of clause as its presupposed item. Generally in all these cases the demand relation of presupposition is said to be that of the dependent clause presupposing the particular types, and not vice versa. The position is that these particular types must occur as and when they are demanded by the elements B^x and B'' , but their own occurrence in a sentence does not argue for the presence of either B^x or B'' ². Further, being clauses of the independent class, these particular types may operate in the structure of a simple sentence³, like any other exponent of the element F.

1a. This is an approximate statement and in a given instance it may well be the case that in some variety of English a presupposed clause of one of these particular types may not be able to expound the element F of a simple sentence, even though it may primarily be regarded as a member of the independent clause class. If the independent clause class is defined by virtue of expounding the element F, and the element F by virtue of operating in (grammatical), simple sentences, the inclusion of such instances in independent clause class must be justified. One such example is that of the exponent of F in the following sentence:

//He says // that he'll come.///

Sc-STR = FB"

-
1. See pages 112-113.
 2. Otherwise the potential ambiguity discussed on p. 146 (2c.) would not exist.
 3. There is no implication that these particular types are relevant only to the independent clause class. Statements are mostly about F and B because of considerations stated above. See p. 102, 1a in Chapter IIC 1 of this Section.

Here the clause exponent of F may not generally be expected to expound F in a simple sentence, in the written variety of English. In spoken language where the parameter of the phonological level is "transparently present", we may 'have' a simple sentence consisting of "He says" with tone group 4, and carrying some contrastive contextual meaning such as: "Whether he means it or not, he does say so". / "Whether it is true or not, he does say so". / "I personally doubt the truth of the statement, but he does say so". It is, however, desirable to avoid "phonological implication" as criteria for defining primary categories where the categories in question must apply both to written and spoken texts, since in the last resort such "criteria" are circular when used for written texts. We interpret the item "He says" phonologically in that particular way, because we have already made decisions regarding the contextual meaning of the item in the very first stages. There are other syntactic and morphological considerations which can be exploited in deciding the status of "He says" before we fall back upon phonology where written texts are concerned.

1b. It is a characteristic of the members of the independent clause class alone, to enter in a significant choice of structures, which are relatable to terms in the Mood System, and correspond to contrastive choices of meaning. Such a choice is exercised by, for instance, "He says". So the compound sentence cited above may be changed to the following:

- i) ///Does he say // that he'll come? ///
- ii) ///Say // that he'll come! ///

Thus, the reporting clause is seen to perform the syntactic function of being a presupposed F element and to share, at the same time, the

general syntactic function common to the secondary classes of the independent clause class. Further, not all reporting clauses are such that they may not expound an element F of a simple sentence. Consider for example:

<u>Rg Kl.</u>	<u>Rd Kl.</u>
He protested)	
He thought)	
He shouted)	
He exclaimed)	that it was too late.
He told me)	
It's true)	

All members exponent of the reporting clause above may expound a simple sentence, with only that change in meaning which would result from the omission of the reported clause. Thus on balance it appears more profitable to treat clauses of these particular types as members of that primary class of clause, with which they have more in common, and to make separate statements regarding those instances or sub-types which show certain variations, as in the case of "He says".

2. A reporting clause, then, is not a presupposing clause by virtue of performing the contextual function of reporting, but only because of being presupposed by a reported clause. We must however discuss the types of clauses selected as reporting, since in the cases of ambiguity, sometimes the presence of a reporting clause is considered as crucial evidence for the status of the ambiguous clause as reported.

2a. Three types of clauses were recognized as exponents of reporting clause at F, two of which may be generally described as clauses which carry a reporting lexical item as the exponent of one of their primary or secondary elements. These two types are discussed first.

Type (i) may be described as F-Rg, other elements of the clause structure being irrelevant. Thus:

///Say // that he'll come.///
 Sc-STR = FB" Rg-Kl = P-Rg.

Although other elements of the structure of the clause are generally irrelevant, it is worth remarking that if the P-Rg is followed by the item "so" expounding the element A, this normally restricts the clause from being presupposed by a B" element.

2b. Type (ii) may be described as a clause which carries a reporting item in the nominal group either at S or C, or in the rankshifted item whether group or clause, expounding the c element of 'pc' structure of the prepositional at A. A representative list of such reporting items is presented below to provide an indication of what is meant by reporting lexical items.

fact
 thought
 problem
 question
 idea
 obvious
 evident
 clear
 conscious
 aware
 afraid
 sure
 no doubt¹
 true
 certain
 news

Examples of the reporting and reported clauses are presented below to illustrate the various members of the type (ii)

i) ///She had no idea // if this was true.///
 Sc-STR = FB" Rg-element = C (A-S.A., p.192)

ii) ///His delusion or pretence ... was basically //
 that people were trying to take away his
 reputation.///
 Sc-STR = FB" Rg-element = S (F.F., p.161)

-
1. Compare with "doubt" which as exponent of P may be reporting but if the item is "some doubt", the clause may not be reporting.

- iii) ///I took refuge in thinking // that the occasion would never arise.///

Sc-STR = FB" Rg-element-R-S K1 in A

- iv) ///I was cheered by the news // that he would soon be here.///

Sc-STR = FB" Rg-element = R-S Nom. in A.

2c. When members of the type (ii) are acting as reporting clauses, any ambiguity resulting from the multivalent nature of the reported clauses may not be resolved by reference to the presence of the reporting clause itself. Thus there are two possible interpretations of the item below, since the type of clause underlined may expound either a reported element or a rankshifted q:

The news that he shouted was cheering¹.

The two interpretations may be:

- A: The news is that he shouted.
This (the above) news is cheering.
- B: He shouted some news.
This same news (shouted by him) was cheering.

Which of these interpretations will be acceptable in a given instance depends on the cotext. If the first is adopted the underlined would be treated as an exponent of the element B" in the sentence structure = F((B")), while the second interpretation would assign the item to the element q in the nominal group: "The news that he shouted." (STR= mhq). Notice that if the type (i) of the reporting clause was selected with the underlined item it would be treated unambiguously as an exponent of B". Thus:

///The news says // that he shouted.///

Sc-STR = FB"

2d. The (iii) type of the reporting clause recognized here has a very rigid structural pattern, with limited possibilities of exponents for

1. I owe this example to Mr. J. McH. Sinclair (University of Edinburgh.)

each element of clause structure. The structure of the clause is SP(A). No C element may be selected. Where the element A occurs in the reporting clause its exponent is normally from a restricted set of words. The exponents of the elements are detailed below:

Element	S	exponent	=	it/this/that
"	P	"	=	be, modal, non modal ¹
"	A	"	=	not/really/just/often/seldom/ mostly/seriously ²

Further, not all types of reported clauses may presuppose this type of reporting clause. The habitual alignments are stated below:

<u>Rg Kl</u>				<u>Rd Kl</u>						
STR =	S	P	A	//	A"	S	P	(C	A)	
I.	It	is/'s	really)	that				
	It	is/'s	etc.							
	It	is	'nt							
II.)	a) when				
					where)					
					b) S"	P	(C	A)		
This)	is)	really	etc.		who)				
or)	or)				which)					
that)	's)				what)					
					c) C"	S	P	(A)		
					who)				
					which)					
					what)					
					whom)					

Thus the two sets of the exponents of S in the reporting clause correspond neatly with the specific types of reported clauses. The it-Rg clause is presupposed by the that-Rd clause, while this/that-Rg clause is presupposed by a wh-Rd clause. It must be added that these reported clauses may presuppose other types of the reporting clauses as well.

-
1. For 'modal' and 'non-modal' see the Verbal Group Chapter IIIC of this section.
 2. The list is not exhaustive, specially where -ly adverbs are concerned.

to the fixed B^x-K1¹, for obvious reasons without raising any serious problems in identification, in general, though occasional cases of genuine ambiguity may arise at times.²

3a.iii Regarding such that-clauses we may further state that when expounding a reported element, they are in free alternation with the type primarily associated with the affirmative class. Thus consider the first example quoted above where the item may be rewritten as follows, without primarily changing the contextual meaning of the sentence.

///Gerald saw // this topic too did not appeal to
Elvira.///
Sc-STR = FB.

When, however, the that-clause of this type expounds a rankshifted q, in some cases such alternation may not be allowed. Thus consider the underlined below:

The point that too much money is spent on defence has
not been proved.

Here the absence of "that" from the underlined clause would result in an unacceptable English sentence.

However, another example of a that-clause acting as a rankshifted q may be presented to demonstrate that in other cases such a clause may be in free alternation with the type primarily ascribed to the affirmative class. So consider the following:

i) The way that you do it is not the only way.

Here we may rewrite the above as follows:

ii) The way you do it is not the only way.

What determines the possibility of alternation or otherwise appears to be governed by very delicate contrasts in the "kind" of "qualification".

-
1. See Chapter IIC 1 - Dependent Clause Classes: Conditioning (pp.119-123 especially.)
 2. Ibid, especially p.120.

This may be, perhaps most easily explained in contextual terms as the contrast between qualifying to "set aside"¹ or "to give additional information".¹ Thus "the way that you do it" is clearly set aside from "the other ways of doing it" while "the point is namely that too much money is spent on defence". Notice that in all cases where the that-clause is not in free alternation with the affirmative type, we may rewrite the clause rankshifted to q as an exponent of a reported clause without primarily changing the contextual meaning of the items provided the reporting item consists of the m h in question at S and "to be" at P. So consider:

/The point that too much money is spent on defence/

///The point is // that too much money is spent on defence///.

This procedure may not be adopted for types where the that-K1 is in free alternation with the affirmative, i.e. we may not say:

The way is that you do it.

In this connection, consider the multivalent C^+SP types with "that" expounding the element C^+ . When such clauses act as rankshifted q, they are, like the reported that-K1s, in free alternation with the affirmative type. Thus consider the pair of clauses presented below:

i) ///....who owe all that they know to Lionel Stokesay....///

K1-STR = S^+PCA R-S K1 = q to 'all' in C
(A-S.A., p.42)

ii) ///....who owe all they know to Lionel Stokesay....///

K1-STR = S^+PCA R-S K1 = q to 'all' in C

Such items are ambiguous since they may be confused with the type ASP, "that" being an item capable of expounding both A", A^+ and C^+ . The status of the item as a B" may be identified in most cases by the presence

1. See the last paragraph of Chapter IIC 2 p.140 above. "Identification" in this case takes the shape of "further information for identification."

of the reporting clause. Where there is a genuine case of ambiguity¹, co-text may have to be appealed to.

There is no possibility of confusing a that-K1 with the structure: CSP and the one carrying the structure: ASP, when these are in rankshift. Clauses of the CSP type in rankshift have at P a transitive verbal group, such that the item to which the clause is acting as q, can be accepted contextually as C to this P. We can clearly illustrate this point by comparing the two rankshifted q examples:

- i) all that they know = they know all
 h q S P C
- ii) The point that too much money is spent
 h q
- * = too much money is spent the point

Where the that-K1 is in free alternation with the affirmative type, we prefer not to explain the phenomenon by 'that/∅' selection. A ∅ selection cannot be said to be specific only to 'that': all clauses of this type, except those with 'whether' and 'if' at A", may select ∅ and still expound Bⁿ, provided the reporting clause is 'agreeable'. Thus consider:

- i) ///He knows // when he's coming back.///
 Sc-STR = FB"
- ii) ///He knows // he's coming back.///
 Sc-STR = FB"

We cannot say that the when-K1 is in free-alternation with an affirmative type, because the absence of 'when' here, corresponds to a primary change in meaning.

1. See the example "the news that he shouted was cheering" where if reported the clause has the structure: A"SP; but if a rankshifted q it has the structure CSP. (Cf. p 146 above).

3a.iv Clauses with 'if', 'when', or 'where' are again multivalent with reference to the conditioning clauses. Where the if-Kl is concerned, a substitution of 'if' by 'whether' may help; if the substitution is not acceptable the clause may be an instance of B^x . The when- and where-Kls, if conditioning, may be included within their presupposed item while this position is only rarely allowed to a reported clause, and that only if the reporting item happens to be in S.

When- and where-Kls may also expound the additioning class. However, identification is no problem here, since the mobility of the clause may be an effective check. If mobile, the clauses may be reported. The only case of reported clauses not mobile are the ones accompanied by the reporting clauses of (iii) type¹, in which case the presence of the reporting clause is, in itself, sufficient reason for regarding the when- and where-Kls as reported.

3b. The type C"SP may expound a reported clause if the element C is expounded by:

Which
what
who²
whom

In addition to this, if items 'how', 'what', 'which' and 'whose' submodify the nominal group at C, they render the type capable of expounding a reported clause. The following sentences may be considered as examples of the above types:

- i) ///....You want to hear // what Mrs. Salad has to say.///
Sc-STR 2 ..FB" . ('what' = h at C) (A-S.A., p.111)
- ii) ///....you know // what real moral decision means....///
Sc-STR = ..F..B".."('what' = h at C) (A-S.A., p.116)

-
1. However also consider a more rare type of reporting-reported clause discussed below under 3d, p. 154.
 2. But not "that" - CF the discussion under 3a.iii above.

iii) ///...you know // how vaguely warmhearted Inge is...///
 Sc-STR = ..FB" ('how' = -; in Nom. at C)
 (A-S.A., p.197)

iv) ///.....to show Johnnie // what stuff he had in him.///
 Sc-STR B^xC" ('what' = -; in Nom. at C)
 (A-S.A., p.257)

3b.i All members of the type are multivalent. All of these may act as the element S in a clause, all except the ones with item 'what' may be rankshifted to act as q¹.

3c. So far, all types discussed as exponents of reported clauses are the ones with a finite P. There is only one type of clause with non-finite P which may expound a B". We may state their structure as A" + P" the exponents of these being "how + to -". An example would be:

///He knew // how to fly almost/// (F.F., p.37)

Thus P can only be infinitival and A may be expounded more frequently by item "how", though in some cases items "why/where/when" may be acceptable.

This type of clause may also be rankshifted to expound the element S in a clause.

3d. The last type of clause expounding B" logically belongs with the finite P clauses but has been singled out to remark upon the peculiar nature of sequential relation between the presupposed and the presupposing clauses. An example of this type would be:

///What do you really suppose // they think of sweet
 Auntie Dollie?///
 Sc-STR = F?B" (A-S.A., p.116)

Here, not only is the sequential order of the presupposed and presupposing determined completely but also - the sentence function of

-
1. For other exponential potentialities compare these with C^xSP and C⁺SP, detailed in Chapters IIC 1 and IIC 2 above.

the item is completely fixed. The first clause is regarded as the exponent of F on two grounds: (i) that it carries the normal sentence function allocated to the interrogative clauses and (ii) that it always carries the reporting item.

4. This is an appropriate occasion to briefly point out the meaning of certain other categories recognized here in the discussion of the sentences of the text. These categories relate to the axis of Quoted speech v. Non-quoted language.

Quoted speech as used here is compatible with what Professor Abercrombie describes as "spoken prose".¹ "Spoken prose" or quoted speech, is the psuedo-register² of 'Conversation' in literature: it is an approximation to and not a faithful copy of natural conversation with the give and take that accompanies it in real situations, since it is true "that nobody speaks at all like the characters in any novel, play or film"³. Granted that quoted speech is 'different' from 'conversation', it must be allowed that what purports to be an instance of 'conversation' in literature, is more delicately speaking, in some way different from what is non-conversation. Such differences may vary from writer to writer and be in fact a feature of contrast in the style of two texts.⁴ For this reason we divided the text in the following way:

The Text		
Non-Speech	quoted speech	Rd speech

'Speech' is used generally here and covers both the instances of 'conversation' and of thought/feeling-expression. Thus cutting across the

1. D. Abercrombie: Conversation and Spoken Prose (ELT. Vol.18, No.1, Oct.1963)

2. See Section I, Chapter I, 7a, p.22 above.

3. D. Abercrombie: Op. Cit.

4. And particular types of selection in quoted speech may be relevant to the axis of verification and consistency (Cf. Section I - Chapter I.)

speech-clauses, whether reported or quoted, would be another axis of what we may call silent v. non-silent speech, where non-silent speech would correspond to reported quoted 'conversation'. This axis was not exploited in the present study.

A yet-another mode of sub-classifying reported quoted speech is to enquire whether a reporting clause accompanies a reported, and a quoting clause, a quoted. It is normal for the reporting clause to accompany the reported one though instances have been found in the text where the clauses bear all the characteristics of being reported without an accompanying reporting clause.¹ It is, however, much more common to find quoted clauses not accompanied by a quoting clause, which may in general be described as a counterpart of the reporting clause. Such variations are again relevant to the stylistic contrasts between two texts. These have been discussed in some detail in a following chapter.²

5. From the discussion of the various types exponent of various secondary clause classes two things stand out clearly:

- i) Each class consists of more than one type of clause, (especially the dependent clause classes)
- ii) Each type may expound more than one clause class, under stateable conditions.

Like class, the type may be described with varying degrees of delicacy suiting the requirements of the analysis in a given case. At a very primary degree of delicacy, very few types of clauses exist such that they may be said to be entirely univalent. Below is presented a table of the multivalent general types (as distinct from particular items exponent of these) together with the list of clause classes they may expound.

1. See Section III, Chapter II , p. 294 below.

2. Ibid. See Table 31, 32 on p. 303-304.

The general types are not made specific to any particular dependent clause class by symbols ⁺, ^x, or ["] as superscript to the crucial elements - instead the superscript ^d marks the crucial element of the type to indicate that the clauses are primarily exponents of some clause class of the dependent clause class. Elements irrelevant to the types are omitted here.

<u>Types</u>	<u>Classes expounded</u>	
A ^d SP	: Cg ; Ag ; Rd	All types listed here are capable of acting as R-S Kls.
S ^d P	: " ; " ; "	
C ^d SP	: " ; " ; "	
SP	: - ; - ; " ; Aff.	
P((S))	: " ; - ; - ; - ; Int.	
P(-ing) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	For details see the discussions above.
P(-en) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	
P(to-) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	
SP(-ing) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	
A ^d SP(to-) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	
A ^d P(-ing) ^d	: " ; - ; - ;	

CHAPTER IID : Linked Clause Class.

1. The types capable of expounding the linked clause class may be subdivided along three independent axes: these are the axes of 'plus-or-minus linked type', 'single-or-double linked type', and 'marked-or-unmarked linked type'. The axes of plus-or-minus and single-or-double relate entirely to the morphology of the items capable of expounding linked clause class, whereas the axis of 'marked-or-unmarked' is set up by reference to whether the type is univalent or multivalent as far as the two secondary classes derived from &B and &F are concerned.

2. The minus-linked clause is characterized by the absence of an element of clause structure. If the absence of an element of clause structure is crucial to the recognition of this general type, we may not regard 'optional' elements such as C and A as relevant to the type. Further, although the elements S and P are, generally speaking, not optional, there are classes and types of clauses without at least one of these elements. Thus consider the types exponent of the imperative, the moodless¹ and the P-less conditioning clause or the nonfinite P clause without the element S². If the absence of either the element S or the element P in itself was enough to enable the type to expound linked clauses, all these would be instances of linked clause class.

2a. A general modification to be made for all minus-linked types is that whatever element is said to be "absent" is an element that is present in the presupposed clause. Further this very element (and its particular exponent in any given case) may be 'transferred' to the minus-linked type, without making the contextual meaning of the sentence different, except to

1. See page 94-101 above.

2. See page 123-129 and 133-135 above.

But the marked dependent type cannot be made to accept this change.

So :

///He loved her as passionately // as John, Mary ///
 Sc-STR = FB^x

We may rewrite the above sentence as:

///He loved her as passionately // as John loved Mary.///

Here the actual exponent of the absent element P can be literally transferred but we do not regard the item as an instance of linked clause because it will not meet the second criterion. Thus there is no English sentence such as:

* He loved her as passionately and as John, Mary.

2a.ii Another general observation regarding minus-linked clauses is that they must preserve a primary structure parallel with the structure of the presupposed, differing only by the absence of those elements which may be said to be "doing" the minus-linking. The consequence of this is that where such linked clause presupposes an F element, it acquires the secondary status of Mood system from the presupposed, as where it presupposes a B, it acquires its secondary dependent status through the presupposed B. The type is therefore entirely unmarked and may either expound &F or &B according to where it presupposes.

The need for a parallel structure implies the presence of at least two elements in the linked clause. Such elements are more frequently Sc, and PC but theoretically it is possible to have SA, PA, or sometimes even CA.

2b. Plus-linked types are clauses which among the exponents of their elements of structure, carry particular linking items at an

difference: in mutual linking both clauses demand the presence of the other, so that the presupposing relation is 'mutual'.¹ Clauses in mutual linking are the only presupposing clauses, which when their place in sentence structure with reference to the scale of depth is &F may expound a complete compound sentence without demanding a non-presupposing F element, though a particular item may be incapable of doing so on lexical grounds.

Consider the examples below:

- i) $///$ The more I have thought over his action $///$
the more I have seen $///$ that there is one
and a half explanations. $///$
 $Sc-STR^2 = \&F \&F B''$ (F.F., p.163)
- ii) $///$he neither drank nor smoked $///$ nor had he a
car. $///$
 $Sc-STR = \&F \&F$ (F.F., p.213)
- iii) $///$ My heart was beating quickly and loud $///$ not because
I had seen her $///$ but because I had
understood ... the truth of my position. $///$
 $Sc-STR = F \&B^X \&B^X$ (F.F., p.81)

In all these sentences the mutually linked clauses present a 'compact' relation with reference to any other presupposing elements in the sentence. Thus we could not rewrite example (i) as $\&F B''$ or (iii) as $F \&B^X$. (Notice, also that we may not have a sentence such as $\&B^X \&B^X$ etc.) For this reason the mutually linked elements are treated as a special case of linking where not only is the direction of presupposition a-normal, but also we may say that the value of the two elements is an especial instance of one element at that place on the scale of depth.

It remains to be pointed out that mutually linked clauses are normally plus-linked and that each mutually linked clause may, like any

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1. See Chapter IIC 3 - Dependent Clause Class : Reported, especially on page 143 (Cf. the example "He says" as a Rg Kl.)
 2. Compare the mutually linked reporting clause in example (i) with the reporting clauses which are restricted in expounding the F element of the simple sentence. Consider the difference that would be made if the lexical item 'see' was substituted by 'wonder'.

other ordinary linked clause, have its own set of sub-complex in a sentence.

Thus to present a constructed example:

///Not only did they write // when they heard of my
misfortune // but also they offered to help me.///
Sc-STR = &F B^x &F

Such sub-complexes are rare, nor do they change the essential nature of this kind of linking, since, in addition to being presupposed by the dependent elements the &F must have another &F before the sentence may be considered complete.

2c.ii We may here dispose of the type of clauses capable of expounding the mutually linked class. The types may be stated as:

A[&] P ((S))

A[&] S P

A[&]

C[&] S P

The exponents of these elements may be listed as below:

A ^{&}	=	not (only)	but (also)
		the more/less	the more/less
		the -er	the -er ¹
		neither/either	nor/or
C ^{&}	=	the -er	the -er

The structures that these clauses combine into are as follows:

A ^{&} S P	A ^{&} S P	(see example (i) above)
A ^{&} P ((S))	A ^{&} S P	(see the constructed example)
A ^{&} /C ^{&} S P	A ^{&} /C ^{&} S P	
A ^{&} /Z ^{&}	A ^{&} /Z ^{&}	

1. " -er " represents the open set of items which may be member of the "Comparative" class of words.

As examples of the last two combinations of structures, consider the following:

- i) ///The richer he grew // the more money he wanted.///
 Kl-STRs = $C^{\&} S P$ $C^{\&} S P$
- ii) ///The sooner I get out of here // the better I shall feel.///
 Kl-STRs = $A^{\&} S P A$ $A^{\&} S P A^1$
- iii) ///The fewer // the better.///
 Kl-STRs = $A^{\&}$ $A^{\&}$ (A-S.A., p.312)
- iv) ///The more // the merrier.///
 Kl-STRs = $A^{\&}$ $Z^{\&}$ (A-S.A., p.141)

2c.iii Mutually linked clauses when at place B on the depth scale, must select from the marked type of the clause, so consider example iii (p.162) above. This follows logically from the fact that being a special case of linking the two linked clauses together represent a move on depth scale as well.

The &B mutually linked clauses normally select the $A^{\&}$ element. Mostly the linking-A precedes any other element of the clause (e.g. "not because" - "but because...."), but this is by no means obligatory. Nor is it necessary for the second &B clause in sequence to select a d-element again. Thus consider a constructed example:

///When not only did they refuse help // but also actively hindered the progress of the work // I grew angry.///
 Sc-STR = $\&B^X \&B^X F$

There is however no point in maintaining that therefore the second linked clause above is multivalent, since even if theoretically it is, it poses no problem whatsoever in identification.

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1. It is not necessary for both clauses to select the same class of primary element i.e. $C^{\&} \leftrightarrow C^{\&}$ or $A^{\&} \leftrightarrow A^{\&}$, combinations of $A^{\&} \leftrightarrow C^{\&}$ / $C^{\&} \leftrightarrow A^{\&}$ being perfectly acceptable.

3. Plus-linking in ordinary linked clauses may be done only through one type and that is the type that selects a linking-A. The linking A may be subdivided into two classes by reference to whether it is bound to be only clause-initial or not. The two lists are as follows:

<u>Initial A^{&}</u>	<u>Medial/Final A^{&}</u>
and	therefore
or	nevertheless
but	nonetheless
for	though
so	then

Any type of clause is capable of "assimilating" the linking A, specially linking A-initial. So the types discussed under the independent and dependent secondary clause classes are also the types, which given proper environment may accept a linking A and become capable of expounding a linked clause. In a more delicate description of such types, it would be necessary to state which types of such plus-linked clauses may presuppose which particular types.

3a. It is, further possible to have a type of linked clauses with double plus-linking. In such cases an interesting point of study is as to which items of the initial-A[&] "colligate"¹ with which particular item(s) of the medial or final-A[&]. Thus "and therefore" and "and then" may be frequent colligations, whereas "but therefore" though perhaps not entirely impossible, does not seem to be a common colligation.

3b. Plus-linking may be found together with minus-linking in some types of linked clauses. The general statement regarding such double plus- minus-linking would be to say that all types of minus-linking clauses may "assimilate" an A[&] element, as do the types exponent of independent and

1. "Colligation" is defined here as the co-occurrence of two or more lexical items, when each has a specific grammatical value.

dependent clause classes. Therefore for a description of this type we have to refer to all the instances of single or double minus-linked types.

3c. Of these various kinds of plus-linked clauses, the ones which are a result of the element $A^{\&}$ being assimilated in the marked dependent types, are all marked as to their exponential abilities. They may only expound $\&B$ clauses. There are further restrictions upon the alignments of the linked presupposing type and the dependent presupposed type e.g. it is not possible to have an alignment, say, of $B^X \&B^X$ by clauses with structures $A^X SP \neq A^{\&} P(-ing)$. We refer to this by saying that any $\&B$ clause may either be expounded by one of the unmarked types (consisting of $A^{\&}$ initiating the structures primarily associated with the Mood System, and the minus-linked clauses), or if it is expounded by a marked type, it must be the type corresponding generally to the type presupposed by such a clause.

4. Minus-linked clauses in single linking, may be stated briefly as clauses without S element and clauses without P element, once it has been demonstrated, that S and P are "absent".

4a. Linking by absence of S may be done only in clauses where the presence of S is accepted as crucial to a type. These two types are SP and $P((S))$. It will follow logically from the fact that all minus-linked clauses are unmarked, that no marked dependent types may be linked by the absence of the element S, or the element P.

-S clauses normally expound successively linked clauses in the sentence structure, where the last clause of the linking recursion is observed to carry double linking of the plus-minus kind. Consider as an example:

///....Beatrice of four years fever lay back
 obediently // closed her eyes // and placed
 one clenched fist bravely over her forehead....///
 Sc-STR =F &F &F..... (F.F., p.117)

Where -S linking is done, the linked clause is restricted in the selection of the terms in tense system in the verbal group expounding the element P, since the tense of the presupposed clause is generally observed to be repeated. This point is illustrated clearly by the example above.

-S linking is the most "favourite" type of minus-linking, the only other more popular than this is the double plus-minus-linking (with A[&] -S type).

4b. -P linked clauses in single-linking are rarely selected.¹
 Here a parallel structure between the linked and the presupposed clauses appears to be necessary. An example of the type is presented below:

///....the turkey changed to an X'mas pudding //
 (and)² the goose to a mince pie.///
 Sc-STR = ...F &F (A-S.A., p.16)

4c. The double minus-linking types may generally be stated as -S, -P and -S, -C clauses. Here the term -I needs explanation. An element P may be entirely absent or partially absent. A partially absent P may be present either only "lexically" or by the marked selection of the negative term from the system of polarity. In both these cases, the exponent of finiteness, modality, tense, and voice are all carried in the verbal group at P in the presupposed clause; in the latter case in addition to the above named elements, the lexical verb is also carried in the said verbal group. Two examples of partial-P are presented below:

1. See Section III, Chapter III, p.311 Table no. 5.

2. "and" is enclosed in brackets to indicate that even in its absence, the remaining item would be considered a linked clause.

///I must break up the printing press, // confiscate
the tools, the uniform.....///

Sc-STR = F &F (F.F., p.143)

Here the verbal group at P in the linked clause is present only lexically, the modal "must" being in the presupposed P element in the first clause.

///Everybody else had always been willing to help, //
she, to the best of my knowledge, never.¹///

Sc-STR = F &F

Here the verbal group at P in the linked clause only carries the marked term (negative) of the system of polarity,² every exponent of the other elements of the structure of the verbal group is present in the presupposed P; the linked P if written out in full would be: 'had never/not been willing to help'.³

The absence of S and the entire absence of P are exemplified in the following example, the only occurrence of this type in the entire text:

///For John he felt a guilty and jealous dislike; //
for Kay, a deep love.....///

Sc-STR = F &F (A-S.A., p.201)

Like the other double minus-linking types the -S, -C type is very rare and there was only one instance of such a clause in the entire analyzed text.

In all these double minus-linked clauses it is obligatory to "have" a structure parallel to that of the presupposed clause (except for the absent element).

4c.1 Where double plus- and- minus-linking are concerned, "double" means 'more than one linking feature', since not only can the single minus-linking clauses 'assimilate' A⁶ but also the double minus-linking ones as well.

1. or 'not'

2. See Verbal Group below, Chapter IIIC of this section.

3. Notice that substitute 'do' is not an instance of partial P.

Thus the types yielded are:

- $A^{\&} - S$
- $A^{\&} - P$
- $A^{\&} - S, pP^1$
- $A^{\&} - S, -P$

Examples of these have been quoted above apropos of other discussions.

5. The discussion in the Chapters IIB, C 1, C 2, C 3, and D aims to present all the types of clauses recognized for the purposes of this analysis as exponents of the secondary elements of sentence structure. These types relate to the structural choice classes of the primary clause classes. In the following Chapters are discussed the general secondary clause classes.

1. i.e., partial P.

CHAPTER IIE 1 : General Secondary Clause Classes.

The System of Theme.

1. Apart from the choices specific to clauses expounding the primary and secondary elements of sentence structure, there are other kinds of choice relations open to nearly all classes of the unit: clause. The classes derived from a consideration of the latter kind of choices are called, here, 'general secondary clause classes,' to distinguish them from the choice classes discussed above. Like other choice classes, the general secondary clause classes form terms of systems, so that most clauses in English enter into this kind of systemic choice, irrespective of whether they expound the element F or B in sentence structure. There are three such systems, namely:

1. Theme System (Classes: Thematic / Nonthematic)
2. Transitivity System (Classes: Transitive / Intransitive)
3. Phase System (Classes: Phase / Non-Phase)

1a. For reasons, which will become clear as each system is discussed individually, the secondary clause class: 'moodless' does not enter in any of the systemic choices detailed above¹. Further, each of these systems is made up of two classes, which may be further sub-classified as the delicacy of description increases. But the logical consequence of the first binary choice is that some clauses are "marked" by virtue of carrying the positive term, while others are "unmarked" by virtue of selecting the negative term. There is however a difference between "non-selection" or "negative selection" and lack of choice as in the case of the moodless clause class. In discussing the systems below,

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1. The term "Minor K1 class" therefore seems a highly appropriate substitute for the term "Moodless K1", as the class as such "abstains" from entering into various relations open to other clause classes.

mention has been made of the class or subclasses of clauses which "opt out" of the system or systems.

2. The system of theme is set up to account for the contrast resulting from variations in the sequence of the primary elements of clause structure.

2a. Sequence of elements is a variable and may sometimes be relevant at the primary degree of delicacy as in place-ordered structures¹, and at others to a later stage in description, as in recursive structures with depth scale². If the variation in sequence is relevant to the system of theme, it follows that only those elements of clause structure are to be considered, which in any given type are not restricted as to sequence. Thus where the order $P((S))$ is essential to the type's exponential capacities, the variation in sequence of the elements S and P cannot be considered as a choice under the system of theme. Or where we have a type such as $A^{\&} SP$, or $A^x SP$, or $C^+ SP$ none of the initial elements may be regarded as elements relevant to the system of theme, because the sequence of $A^{\&}$, A^x and C^+ with reference to SP is in each case fixed. Consider in contrast the type SP, to whose exponential abilities the order or the presence/absence or the number of the elements C/Z and A in the clause is irrelevant. Here we have certain possible 'places' for the elements C and A: the element C may follow P or precede S, the element A may follow P, occur medially as in S A P or in P A C, or it may precede the element S.

2b. Those elements C and A which are free to precede the element S or not except for the exponential requirements of the classes in the

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1. E.g. types exponent of Classes in the Mood System or of the Dependent Clause classes, where the sequence of the elements is crucial.
 2. As for instance the elements B C D ... in sentence structure, whose place on the scale of depth is not determined by sequence.

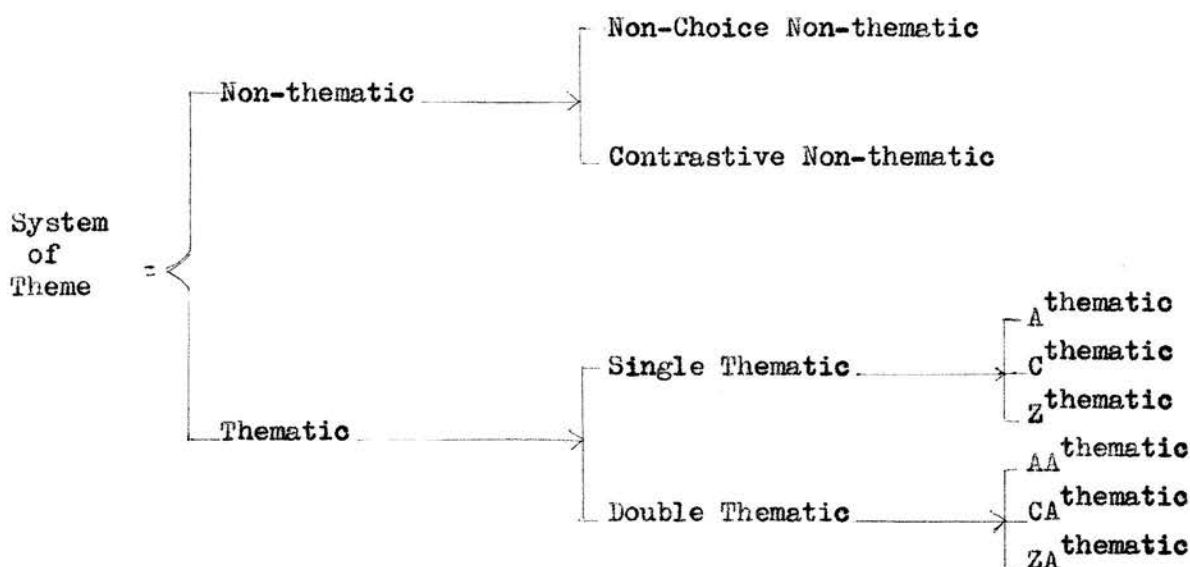
system of theme, are the only elements that need concern us in the discussion of thematic and non-thematic clauses. This implies that the elements $A^{\&}$, A^d or $C^{\&}$, C^d or $Z^{\&}$, Z^d are all irrelevant to the discussion, as are also elements S and P since their sequences in particular types are crucial to the exponential capacities of the type.

2c. Thematic and non-thematic clause classes are in one-to-one correspondence with the types expounding them. All clauses with sequence-free¹ C, Z and A elements preceding the element S are members of the thematic clause class, the rest are non-thematic. Of the non-thematic, some are "contrastive non-thematic", whereas others are "non-choice non-thematic". The latter types were referred to earlier as the ones that 'opt out' of the system, altogether, while the former carry the negative term, with the potentiality of selecting the positive as and when required.

The thematic clause class may be further sub-classified by reference to the thematic element in the clause: thus C-thematic, A-thematic, and Z-thematic clauses are yielded from this consideration.

Further a thematic clause may be "single thematic" or "double thematic" since the elements C A, Z A, or A A in any order may precede the element S. We may represent these various choices in the System of Theme, as follows:

1. 'Sequence-free' implies "the elements are not entirely place-ordered, and are mobile, though with certain restrictions."



In the cases of double thematic clauses, the first thematic element is considered to be "strong thematic" and the second one "weak". The order of the double thematic elements is not necessarily as shown above, i.e., the order may be A C as it may also be C A, but it is observed that in double thematic clauses at least one of the thematic elements is an A element. Further where only double A^t -clauses are concerned "double" may mean 'more than two thematic elements'.

3. We present examples of the three single thematic clauses below.

- 1) //Myself, I cannot see.//¹
 $Kl-STR = C^t S P$ (F.F., p.17)
- ii) //For John he felt a guilty and jealous dislike...//
 $Kl-STR = A^t S P C$ (A-S.A., p.201)
- iii) //The apron I now see to have been filthily dirty.//
 $Kl-STR = Z^t S A P_1 P_2 C$ (F.F., p.17)

The same items if non-thematic would be written as follows:

- i) I cannot see myself.
- ii) He felt a guilty and jealous dislike for John....

iii) I now see the apron to have been filthily dirty.

3a. A comparison of the two sets of clauses suggests that the contrast between thematic and non-thematic refers to 'anaphoric' and 'cataphoric' mention, while contextually it may relate to topical emphasis.

3b. Some of the types which belong to the non-choice non-thematic clauses are as follows:

- i) the moodless clause class
- ii) the interrogative clause class (especially the subclass with $C^?$ or $A^?$)
- iii) the dependent clause classes (types as follows):
 - P-nonfinite types without A^d or S
 - $S^d P$
 - $C^d S P$

The moodless clause class is obviously irrelevant because of the absence of the elements S and P, and because there are no crucial order statement for the elements A and negative Z in the moodless clauses.

The interrogative clauses, as a whole are not frequently thematic. How far this is so, because they are themselves less frequent than the affirmative clauses, and the thematic clauses themselves are very rare cannot be said here. But theoretically a thematic clause with an interrogative structure is possible. Consider:

- i) Did you see him again yesterday?
Kl-STR = $P((S)) C A A?$
- ii) Yesterday did you see him again?
Kl-STR = $A^t P((S)) C A?$

The contrast between the two clauses above is the one specific to the system of theme. Whereas compare the above with the following contrast:

i) Whom did you see?
 $K1-STR = C^?P((S))?$

ii) Did you see whom?
 $K1-STR = P((S)) C?$

All contrast in language being meaningful, the change from i) to ii) in the second pair is to be accounted for, but since it does not correspond to the contrast handled under theme, this type of interrogative clause is said to be non-choice non-thematic clause. At this point it is appropriate to mention those exponents of the thematic A, the selection of which results in the change of the affirmative type into the interrogative type. The list of such items is:

often
 never
 very rarely
 seldom
 scarcely (and perhaps a few others)

An example of a thematic clause with one of these items is presented below:

- i) //I have never disliked dirt.//
 $K1-STR = S P((A)) C.$ (F.F., p.17)
- ii) //Never have I disliked dirt!//
 $K1-STR = A^tP((S))C^?$
- iii) //Have I never disliked dirt?//
 $K1-STR = P((SA))C?$

Number ii) above is a thematic clause, which is in contrast with i), but not with iii). Since it carries the crucial structure $P((S))$ related to the interrogative class primarily, such a clause is regarded as an example of interrogative structure, though its sentence function is that of statement. Further it follows from the comparison of the above examples, that clauses

of the iii) type $P((S))$ are non-choice non-thematic if the said element A is expounded by any of the items from the above list.

For a comparison of the thematic clauses in the text see table 9 of Section III Chapter III below.

CHAPTER IIE 2 : The System of Transitivity.

1. Choices in the system of transitivity relate to the absence or presence of the element C in the clause, the two terms being transitive (with C) and intransitive (without C).

1a. Transitivity was traditionally ascribed to the verb in English grammar, the verb being classified as transitive or intransitive according to its potentiality to "have an object", or not. While it is accepted that a classification of the lexical verb-word along this axis is a useful operation, such a classification provides no information regarding the element C itself, which is the crucial evidence for transitivity, in the first place. Further, by restricting transitivity merely to the verb, we obscure the fact that it relates to the relationship of two elements of the structure of the clause. For this analysis a transitive type of clause is considered to be: "P C.....", as usual disregarding those elements of clause structure which are not relevant to the exponence of the transitive clause class. The intransitive clause has the structure P ϕ .

2. Clauses exponent of the transitive clause class may further be subdivided by reference to whether they have one element C in their structure, or two. More than two C are not observed to occur in English clauses. The choice between single and double is made under the 'system of number of complements'.

Two C elements are not to be confused with two nominal groups in serial relation, since such groups are said to expound the 'same' element. The two C elements of a double transitive clause are expounded by two individual nominal groups, which both stand in a C-relation to the element P individually, and cannot be linked serially. Thus compare the exponents

of the two C elements in the following clause:

//They made her more devoted, more doglike,
more secure.//

K1-STR = S P C C

(F.F., p.123)

The exponent of the second C is a serial nominal group,¹ that of the first is a simple nominal group. Notice that the relationship of 'more devoted' to 'made' is the same as that of 'more doglike, more secure', and that these groups may be linked but that this relationship may more delicately be said to be different where 'made' and 'her' are concerned, although at the primary degree of delicacy "her" stands in a C relation to 'made' as does the serial nominal group.

Clauses with a positive Z element are indirectly relevant to this discussion. A positive Z element is² both S and C but it is not to be treated as a case of C, for obvious reasons. As the element S and the element P_1 are relevant to the selection from the system of mood, so are the last element P and the element(s) C/CC/ of such a clause relevant to the system of transitivity. No phase clause may have more than two C elements, and a phase clause may be intransitive as the following example shows:

// I found myself being watched.//

K1-STR = S P_1 Z P_2

Thus all clause classes except the moodless³ class enter in the systemic choice of transitivity and also of single and double transitivity.

2a. Another systemic classification of the transitive clauses is that under the system of "extension". This is independent of the system of the number of complements. A C element may be either "extensive" or

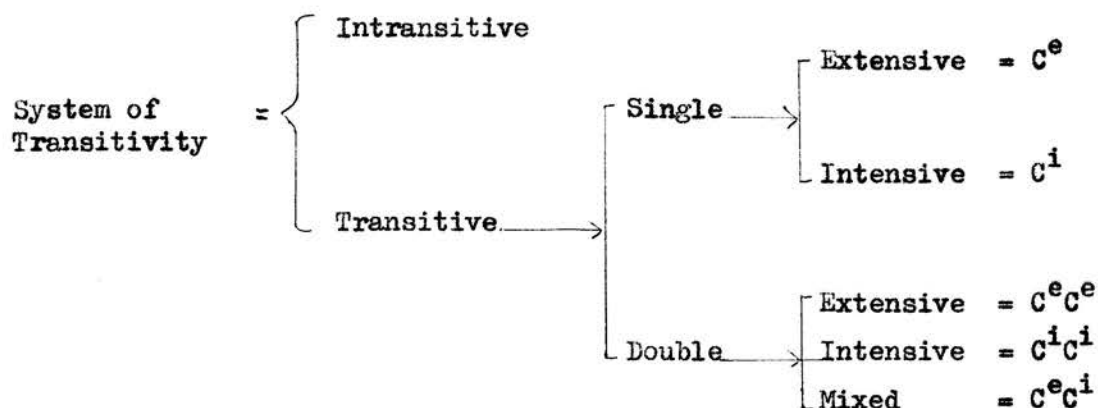
1. See Nominal Group, Chapter IIIA of this Section.

2. i.e. 'Combines the functions' of both S and C.

3. The moodless clauses are defined by the absence of P and hence the elements S or C cannot occur in these clauses.

"intensive". The difference between the extensive and the intensive C corresponds to the difference between the relation of the two C elements to the element P in the example of the double-C clause above,¹ where "her" is an instance of an extensive C element. Since the two systems are independent of each other, a double C clause may either be "purely" extensive/intensive or mixed.

The systemic choices within the system of transitivity may be presented as follows, where superscript e stands for "extensive" and i for "intensive".



Notice that in the 'double mixed' only the order C^eCⁱ is possible.

Below is presented one example of the item from each class:

- i) //....she had a large, rather old face....//
Kl-STR = S P Cⁱ (F.F., p.33)
- ii) //....women ... should not disregard the demands
of feminine fashion//
Kl-STR = S P C^e (A-S.A., p.16)
- iii) //.... he would ... give me warning...//
Kl-STR = S P C^eC^e (F.F., p.51)
- iv) //That girl's face looks terrible, naked.//
Kl-STR = S P CⁱCⁱ (A-S.A., p.51)

1. See page 178 above.

v) //They made her more devoted//

K1-STR = S P C^eCⁱ

(F.F., p.123)

3. Apart from that restriction which results from the selection of the element C, on the choice of the lexical verb, the element P of single C-clauses enjoys the full range of systemic choices specific to the element. In double C-clauses "passive voice"¹ may not be selected at P.²

3a. No specific set of items expounds the extensive and the intensive C elements separately. Therefore it is necessary to evolve a device for checking whether an instance of C is C^e or Cⁱ. Here the system of voice is relevant; and we may state the rule as follows: in a single or double Cⁱ-clause, the lexical item selected at P is an active verb, which may not expound lexical verb in a passive P, with the "same meaning". In the last resort therefore where the exponent item is not completely univalently "active" we may have to appeal to the context, e.g. consider the first example above, specially the item "had" at P. The item "had" being multivalent, may be a member of both the "active" and the "passive/active" verb classes, but its lexical set in the two cases is expected to be different. Thus the univalently active 'had' would belong to a lexical set with items "own, possess", while the other would belong to "eat, drink, consume". So compare:

i) She had a large, rather old face.

ii) She had a banana for lunch.

Item "had" in the first sense cannot be made to accept a change for passive voice, but in the second sense though rare it is acceptable.

1. See Verbal Group, Chapter IIIC of this Section.

2. More delicately, where the exponent of P is a verbal group in aspect relation, the last group may not select "passive" voice. Thus consider:

She was forced to consider him her benefactor.

S (Vbl gp: passive-:Vbl gp)=P

C

Such items as, for instance, 'sit', 'stand', 'grunt', 'sigh' and others are univalently only active and whatever C element follows them is an exponent of C^1 . Thus:

He sat silent. = S P C^1

He grunted assent = S P C^1

It follows from the above that an exponent of C^1 in a given case may not be transferred to expound the element S of the same clause, the P of which has been changed from active to passive. Where items exponent of either, are largely univalent, such transfer would result in meaningless items; where however items are multivalent the change in meaning will be over and above the change in meaning which results from an active-passive transformation, as would happen if the example i) above was subjected to this transformation.

CHAPTER IIE 3 : The System of Phase.

1. The third and last general secondary clause classification is made with reference to the number of P elements in a clause. The system under which such choice is made is referred to as the system of phase, since each set of S P C relations stands in a phase-relation to the contiguous S P(C) relation. The systemic choice and the exponent types may be presented as follows:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{System of} & & \\ \text{Phase} & = & \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \text{Non-phase KL} & = P. \\ \text{Phase Kl} & = P_1 Z P_2 \dots\dots\dots \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

Theoretically like the recursive elements of sentence structure the $P_1 \dots P_2 \dots$ relation may continue to $\dots n$ but in practice, for any examples of clauses with more than P_3 element in them we might have to analyse a larger text than was analysed for the present study since no P_4 elements were found in the present sample; while there was only one clause with P_3 the others had only P_2 elements.¹

Again the clause class which is a non-choice non-phase clause class is the moodless one.

2. As is clear from the examples of the phase clauses quoted earlier in connection with the discussion of the Z and Z^t elements², "more than one P element" in a clause does not correspond to "more than one verbal groups", since there may be clauses with more than one verbal groups but only one P element, as these may be either in serial or in aspect relation. So consider:

1. See Section III Chapter III , p. 517 below.

2. See Chapter IIB pp. 82-83 and Chapter IIE 1 p. 173 above.

i) //He feared getting a raspberry from Elvira...//
 Kl-STR = S P C A ... P = Vbl gp -; Vbl gp
 (A-S.A., p.277)

ii) //I had bathed and drunk//
 Kl-STR = S P ... P = Vbl gp & Vbl gp
 (F.F., p.5)

P elements in phase clauses are in "phases" of S P C relation, such that the second and every other P following finds the value of S in the same item as expounds the value of C to the previous P. Thus:

S P₁ C
 " +S P₂ C
 " +S P₃ C
 " +S P₄ etc.

An example of the structure selecting 2 P elements would be:

//.....but even her annoyance ... could not bring her
to criticize her mother to Gerald...//
 Kl-STR = A[&]S...P₁Z P₂C A ... (A-S.A., p.227)

The P elements have been underlined. It is not essential for ZP elements to be contiguous, consider the example quoted before:

//The apron I now see to have been filthily dirty..//
 Kl-STR = Z^t ... S A P₁P₂C.

2a. P elements in phase-Kls are restricted with regard to certain systemic choices. Only P₁ exercises the full range of systemic choice at P; P₂ and all other following P elements may not make a selection for finiteness, modality or contrastivity.¹ P₂ and following P elements are always non-finite, non-modal, non-emphatic. In contrast the range of lexical verbs capable of being selected in P₁ and following P elements except for the last P element, remains the same. The range extends over the lexical sets of items such as

1. For the meaning of these terms see Verbal Group, Chapter IIIC of this Section.

say
order
promise
persuade
help
give
make
find
see¹

The occurrence of such items at P_1 may allow the freedom to select a series of Z and P_2 elements, but should not be considered as making a "demand" for the same. No clauses with an intransitive verbal group at P_1 , or one incapable of expounding P with intensive C elements may be selected in phase-Kls except in the last P element. But there is no restriction on the exponents of the P elements in Phase-Kls as to either the selection of single or multiple groups, and both ways of being multiple (i.e. serial, or aspect) are open to them.

The criteria for determining the boundaries of the verbal groups with reference to each distinct P elements are of interest for instances such as:

///I asked them to come // remembering their kindness
to me.///
Sc-STR = F B^X

Here it is of interest to know on what grounds "to come" and "remembering" are not treated as groups in aspect relation, because if they are groups in aspect relation, they would expound one element P_2 . The criteria for the delimitation of the exponents of the element P are discussed under Verbal Group².

2b. Not all nominal groups between two P elements are to be regarded as an instance of Z, and therefore the actual presence of a

-
1. Each item is only a representative of the lexical set, e.g. 'order' may be also 'command, pray, request, beseech, ask, require, want' etc. The postulated lexical sets are entirely intuitive.
 2. See Chapter IIIC of this Section, especially pp. 256-260.

nominal group between two verbal groups does not automatically assign the value of $P_1 P_2$ to the said verbal groups. Compare the following with the above phase-Kls:

- i) It is right to help your relations.
Kl-STR = S P C
- ii) I could not believe the story remembering him so well.
Sc-STR = F B^x

Neither of the nominal groups above are in Z relation to their preceding and following verbal groups. Normally there are means of deciding whether such groups are exponents of the positive Z, by checking the relationship of the items, though there may be cases of genuine ambiguity where only an appeal to the cotext would resolve such ambiguity. An example may be:

I invited them to amuse you.

The item may be interpreted in two ways:

- i) In order to amuse you I invited them.
- ii) They are (going) to amuse you as I have requested them that they should amuse you.

While the first interpretation assigns the structure F B^x to the sentence, the exponent of B^x being "to amuse you", the second interpretation assigns it to a simple sentence expounded by a phase-Kl. The interpretation itself is obviously determined by the Co-text.

3. Phase clauses are in free combination with the clauses of both dependent and independent clause class, as well as with the other four general secondary clause classes discussed above, under the systems of theme and transitivity.

CHAPTER IIIA: Group Classes: The Nominal Group.

1. The inventory of the primary elements of clause structure has been stated above¹ in Chapter IIB, 2-2f. Their respective places in the clause structure have been outlined in connection with the discussion of the types of clauses. Chapter III will be concerned with describing the exponents of the elements of the structure of clauses. Since the unit below clause is group, the consideration of the exponents of the elements of clause structure will provide us with primary group classes. There is comparatively greater coincidence between type and class at the group-rank. For the classification of classes and types of groups we have observed the general principles stated above². The primary group classes established with reference to the elements of clause structure are as stated below:

S, C, Z	expounded by the nominal group class
P	" " " verbal group class
A	" " " adverbial group class.

Of these classes, the verbal group is largely univalent while the nominal group presents the most complicated picture.

2. The nominal group is somewhat a-normal since this is the only class of a unit which expounds three primary elements of structure. The type of clause primarily ascribed to the affirmative class has a superficial resemblance to this situation, since it may expound three classes of clauses, namely affirmative, reported and rankshifted³. But there is here a distinction to be drawn. Both the reported and the rankshifted clauses

1. See pp. 72-83.

2. See Chapter IIA, 2a-2b, pp. 65-67 above.

3. See Chapter IIA, 3, pp. 84-86 above.

are also expounded by other types of clauses¹, while none of the elements S, C, Z are expounded by any other class of group. Admittedly, within the group itself, a small list of items may be subclassified as "normally exponent of S/C/Z", but there is otherwise a large degree of overlap of exponence. These facts justify the setting up of only one class, even though members of the class expound three different primary elements.

The alternative to the above solution is to remain "theoretically correct" and derive three primary classes from the three primary elements, thus losing economy, simplicity and at the same time obscuring the type-likeness existing between items in all such three classes. Obviously, such an alternative would not be satisfactory.

2a. Since it is the habitual function of the majority of the members of the nominal group to expound the elements S, C, Z, this overlap in exponence is not treated as a case of "multivalence"; the nominal group is regarded as multivalent only because it may also expound the element A of clause structure which element A may be expounded by another primary class of group as well. Examples are presented below of the members of the nominal group expounding the elements S, C, Z, and A.

- i) I had set that morning aside for going to the dentist.
That morning = Nom. gp exponent of C.
- ii) That morning promised to be fine.
That morning = Nom. gp exponent of S.
- iii) That morning.
That morning = Nom. gp exponent of Z (negative)
- iv) That morning I decided to buy the heater.
That morning = Nom. gp exponent of A.

1. While the affirmative is expounded only by the type SP; this is the basis for ascribing the type SP primarily to the affirmative class.

"That morning" is treated as A in the last example on two grounds (a) that it is neither the exponent of the element S, nor C nor Z, and (b) that it enjoys the 'mobility' that most exponents of the element A do.

So we may rewrite the above as, for example:

I decided to buy the heater that morning.

The substitution of "that morning" by a member of the adverbial group is another check, but not as effective as the syntactic one, because although "that morning" may be substituted by 'then', 'after all', 'at last' and other adverbial groups, it may also be substituted by 'that day', 'that afternoon' and other nominal groups.

2b. A pertinent question is: why do we not regard the nominal group as derived from the elements S, C, Z and A, instead of considering it as multivalent with reference to the last-mentioned element? The reasons may be stated as follows:

- i) Only a subclass of the nominal group may expound the element A.
- ii) The element A may be expounded by another primary class,
i.e. the adverbial group.
- iii) The adverbial group may not expound any elements S, C or Z.¹

Therefore if the nominal group was considered to be derived from S, C, Z and A, at some stage the above three crucial differences would have to be brought out, whereas in treating it as multivalent and in treating the adverbial group as a different primary group altogether the statement is simplified without distorting the picture.

2c. Like the units sentence and rank, groups may be simple or compound²; a simple group consists of one word, a compound of more than one.

-
- 1. Quotative examples are ignored as irrelevant.
 - 2. "Simple" and "compound" must not be confused with "single" and "multiple nominal groups", for which see 12 - 12c below.

Words like sentences have often been defined by reference to orthography, the definition being in this case that a word is surrounded by "spaces" around it. This is an approximately acceptable definition, but fails to account for such items as:

Montpelier Square

1950

In the case of numbers and proper names personal discretion was employed to decide where the word boundary occurred. The hyphen was treated as an intra-word punctuation, as was the comma signifying the 'possessive case', but not where it signified the 'abbreviation' and combination of two words as in "He's" = He is/has".

3. The structure of the nominal group of the simple type is "h". As at sentence rank the structure of a simple sentence is F^1 , while that of the compound must have one element F in it, so all simple nominal group structure must consist of the element h, and all compound nominal groups must have one element h in them. This postulate has a far-reaching effect on the exponential abilities assigned to items capable of expounding any elements of the structure of the nominal group, as will be made clear at a later stage.

3a. A consideration of the structure of compound nominal groups provides us with the following primary elements of group structure: m, h, q. These elements are primarily place-determined, and their order in sequence may be stated as \overrightarrow{mhq} , the arrow indicating that sequence is crucial to the definition of elements m and q. The three possible primary structures of the compound group² would logically be: mh, hq or mhq. Some examples³ are

-
1. An approximate statement, considering the exception of those simple sentences which have the structure B with the sentence function: answer.
 2. "Group" for the purposes of this Chapter means 'nominal group' unless otherwise stated.
 3. Where examples of nominal groups are not quoted from the text, we specify that they are constructed examples, however, actual examples from the text are given without page numbers but within commas.

presented below:

- i) "anything"
 h
- ii) "John's articles"
 m h
- iii) "a case of tyranny and injustice"
 m h q
- iv) "the house in Montpelier Square"
 m h q
- v) "bad enough"
 h q

3b. The primary elements m, h and q may be subdivided by a move in delicacy mainly on the chain axis. Thus the primary element m may be broken down on chain axis into four secondary elements, namely 'deictic' (=d), 'numeral' (=o), 'epithet' (=e) and 'nominal' (=n). Being secondary elements derived from the chain axis, these are not mutually exclusive, and may be found in the element m, individually or in various combinations. The following examples illustrate the point; the secondary structure of each gp is stated below the items, the primary within brackets:

- i) "John's articles"
 d h (= m h)
- ii) "the fantasist"
 d h (= m h)
- iii) "brown stockings"
 e h (= m h)
- iv) "one star"
 o h (= m h)
- v) "glittering myth"
 n h (= m h)
- vi) "the brick alley"
 d n h (= m h)
- vii) "the fourth step"
 d o h (= m h)
- viii) "those two barbaric Chieftains"
 d o e h (= m h)

At the primary degree of delicacy all these groups are alike, but at the secondary degree they vary. Elements d, o, e, n are mainly place-determined elements and occur in m in that order - the 'order' of elements being conceived of as from right to left. That is, n may not precede e may not precede o may not precede d. A large number of items exponent of o, e and n are multivalent; their value in a particular structure is determined by reference to other elements of the structure of the group.

4. To achieve greater particularity of description, we may subdivide the secondary elements d, o, e, n themselves, so as to be able to account for the differences between, say, "one" and "fourth" in examples iv and vii above, which have both been treated alike as exponents of element o, at the secondary degree of delicacy.

4a. The element d is further subdivided on the chain axis into d_a , d_b , d_c . The elements are completely place-determined in the same way as the secondary elements d, o, e, n are: the 'order' consists not of "following" a particular element, but of "not preceding" certain elements. Thus while we may have $d_a d_c$; $d_b d_c$ or $d_a d_b$ we may not have $d_b d_a$. The items exponents of these elements are normally not multivalent with reference to each other so that these elements may be considered not only "place-determined" but also "class-determined." A representative list of the items member of these classes corresponding to each of these elements is presented below:

d_a :	d_b :	d_c :
both	a/an	whole
all	the	usual
such	that/this/those/these	few
half	his/her/its/John's	only
	no	own
		same.

A consideration of the members of these classes will indicate that even though grammatically a particular "order" of these secondary elements were observed, there are other kinds of restrictions on the selection of a particular item in a given case, the ignoring of which may lead to unacceptable groups. The two kinds of restrictions may be illustrated as follows.

Take for example a constructed nominal group:

all those usual excuses

d_a d_b d_c h

The above may be rewritten as:

$d_a h$ (all excuses)

$d_b h$ (those excuses)

$d_c h$ (usual excuses)

$d_a d_c h$ (all usual excuses)

$d_b d_c h$ (those usual excuses)

$d_a d_b h$ (all those excuses)

The meaning of the items will naturally be changed in each case, but none of the items would be regarded as unacceptable. However, compare the following:

- 1
- * $d_c d_a h$ (Usual all excuses)
- * $d_c d_b h$ (Usual those excuses)
- * $d_c d_b d_a h$ (Usual those all excuses)

The restriction on the last three structures is regarded purely grammatical. On the other hand consider the nature of restriction on the selection of individual items from the three secondary classes within the same group:

-
1. These would be regarded as unacceptable instances of one nominal group, though we may have a sentence such as: "Usual, those excuses, you know."

- * both a whole story
- * such these few horses
- * half no same share

No set of general rules may be postulated such that it may apply to all members of the sub-classes equally, and prevent, on purely grammatical grounds, the selection of any item(s) in combination with others. This is a feature common to members of nearly all classes operating in the nominal group: therefore the inability of a particular item of a class not to operate with a given value in one particular group does not disqualify it as a member of that class.

4b. Rankshift is not a "popular" feature in the element m of the group. The only place where rankshift may occur is at the element d_b , if the exponent selected is from the subclass designated: "possessive". So compare the groups below:

- i) "Miss Pringle's nephew" = $d_b h$
- ii) Miss Pringle's nephew's shirt = $d_b h$
- iii) Miss Pringle's nephew's shirt's collar = $d_b h$

Here the first example is the actual one and the others have been constructed to demonstrate how rankshifted groups may enter in the structure of the element d_b itself. More delicately, examples ii and iii would be analysed as:

- ii) Miss Pringle's nephew's shirt.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
 & [d_b & & h] & h \\
 = & & d_b & & h
 \end{array}$$
- iii) Miss Pringle's nephew's shirt's collar

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 & [[d_b & & h] & h] & h \\
 & [d_b & & h] & h \\
 & & d_b & & h
 \end{array}$$

The $d_b h$ relations resolve as follows:

Miss Pringle's nephew('s)

d_b

h

nephew's shirt('s)

d_b

h

shirt's collar

d_b

h

4c. Of the three secondary elements of d the most "popular" element is d_b . Notice the inclusion of the item 'no' in the list of d_b . 'No' does not subsume 'not', which behaves like a submodifier with an almost unlimited range of places, where it may occur. The exponent class of the submodifiers are discussed below. (See p. 200-203).

5. Like d , the element o may also be subdivided into three elements, namely o_a , o_b , o_c . These elements are primarily class-determined, so that an item from the class expounding o_a may not expound o_b may not expound o_c ¹. Order is an associated feature. It is observed that the majority of the nominal groups carry these elements in the order: o_c may not precede o_b may not precede o_a . Nominal groups observing this order are considered 'unmarked', while the groups which have the less frequent order of o_b preceding o_a are regarded as 'marked'. Thus compare the constructed examples:

i) The first four publications

d_b

o_a

o_b

h

(unmarked)

ii) The four first ones

d_b

o_b

o_a

h

(marked)

1. This does not necessarily imply that the items are entirely univalent. Thus any item member of any of the three classes may also expound the element h , and sometimes, though rarely, other secondary elements in m , as for instance the item 'few'. See the lists under 5a.

5a. The class of items operating at o_a consists of "ordinals" and also those words which are traditionally described as "superlatives".

Thus items such as the following expound o_a :

First
second
best
last
prettiest

The element o_b is expounded by "cardinals" and other "vague count-words"; the class, therefore, consists of items such as:

one
two
several
few
many

Notice that the item "few" is a member of the class at d_c as well. Needless to say that here, as always with any multivalent item, the structural and contextual meaning of the item varies according to what element the item expounds in a given instance.

The class operating at o_c consists of words which have traditionally been labelled "comparative". There are restrictions on the selection of items from the comparative class (at o_c) if a superlative word is chosen at o_a . Thus while "the first prettier girl" appears to be a usual 'unmarked' group, the group "the prettiest prettier girl" would require a somewhat unusual and marked context of situation to operate in.

6. The secondary elements at d are entirely place ordered, those at o can accept some variations, while the secondary elements at e appear to be free of the consideration of order. These elements show a certain resemblance to successively linked clauses in sentence structure at any one place on the depth scale. Just as theoretically any linked clause in

successive linking may directly presuppose the first and unlinked element (i.e. B in B&B&B&B ... F in F&F&F&F ...) in the same way, all e elements are individually relatable to element h. But the resemblance stops at this point. It is not necessary for the secondary elements of e to be in recursive structure, as it is necessary for successive linking to do so.

Thus compare

- i) "vast grey bloomers"
- ii) powder grey bloomers

In the first case both items are independently relatable to 'bloomers', so: 'vast bloomers' and 'grey bloomers', but in the second 'powder' is to 'grey' as 'grey' is to 'bloomers', and 'powder bloomers' involves a different kind of change in meaning than does 'vast bloomers'. The first example is that of the secondary elements of e in latent serial relation (since linking is possible), the second, of e elements in depth recursive relation. These two types of relations could be treated as the two axes for the subdivision of the element e. A third axis would be with reference to whether the element e is related to h (successively or recursively) or indirectly through n. Thus compare:

- i) stainless steel knife

e n h
- ii) old steel knife

e n h

The relationship could be shown as in the case of sentences¹, as follows:

- i) {stainless steel} knife.
- ii) {old} {steel} knife.

1. See Chapter IB Presupposition, p. 61 above.

6a. Clearly such subdivision of the element *e* requires a very delicate analysis. For the purposes of this study these specific subdivisions of the element *e* were not marked in the notation. Only, the number of the *e* elements in each group was checked by marking the elements as $e_1, e_2, e_3 \dots$, the subscript numbers corresponding to actual sequential order.

6b. The class of words capable of expounding the element *e* is the class traditionally called "adjective". Certain subclasses of the adjective are like the present or past participial verbs in their morphology. These words apart from acting in the verbal groups may also expound either the element *e* or *n*. While the chances of ambiguity between the word acting as verb or *e/n* are very small indeed, those between the word acting as *e* or *n* are quite considerable. Thus on morphological grounds it is possible to draw the line between 1 and 2 below but not between 2i and 2ii:

1. It tired the man.
- 2.i) The tired man.
- 2.ii) The printed dress.

The crucial criterion for distinguishing the items as exponent of *e* or *n* is to use "very" "extremely" or "absolutely" as a submodifier to the item. It is normally observed that items exponent of the element *n* do not 'accept' such submodifiers. So compare:

- 2.i) The very tired man.
- 2.ii) The very printed dress¹.

7. The element *n* is called 'nominal' but in fact can be expounded by a class of words which is composed of at least three general types of words: (1) noun substantive (2) verbal item (3) noun-derivative.

1. Strictly speaking the item may not be considered "unacceptable". Most nominal groups are examples of 'unmarked/marked' rather than 'acceptable/unacceptable' items; thus it is possible to imagine a context in which the above nominal group may be 'acceptable' though 'marked'.

Some of the examples of the noun substantive are: glass, metal, silk, gold, brick, stone etc. The verbal items belong to the types: 'present participial' and 'past participial', examples of the two being: dancing, swimming, riding and printed, carved, chased, frosted, etc. The noun-derivatives refer to a subclass of 'derivatives': these are either derivations from the names of countries (places), or time/epoch of history. Apart from these, nouns referring to person place and time may also be used as exponents of the element n. Some examples are presented below:

- i) "a metal plaque"

$$d_b \quad n \quad h$$
- ii) "a fertility god"

$$d_b \quad n \quad h$$
- iii) "his quavering voice"

$$d_b \quad n \quad h$$
- iv) "frosted and chased glass"

$$n \quad \& \quad n \quad h$$
- v) "an Anglo-Saxon deity"

$$d_b \quad n \quad h$$
- vi) "a German University"

$$d_b \quad n \quad h$$
- vii) "morning coffee"

$$n \quad h$$

7a. The element n itself may be subdivided on two axes: like the element e it may be in serial relation or in a (recursive) depth relation. In the first case each element n is directly related to h, in the second, they are in an unbreakable relation terminating at h. An example of the serial n elements is given above under iv) "frosted and chased glass" where "frosted" is to "glass" as "chased" is to "glass". An example of the

depth recursive n elements is presented below:

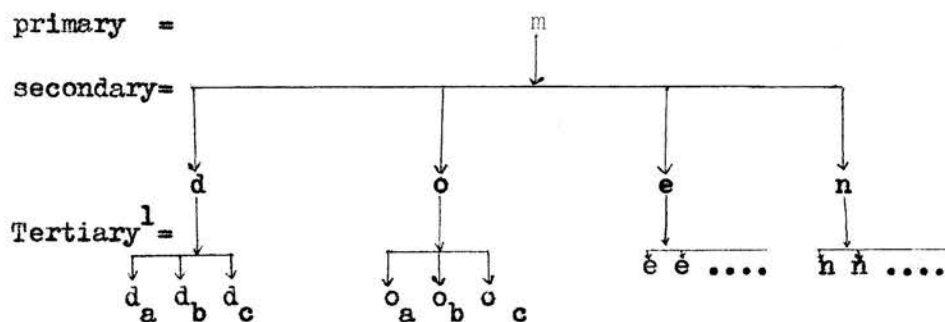
a North Indian silk dress
 $d_b \quad n \quad n \quad n \quad h$

Obviously, the item above is multivalent: it may either mean 'a silk dress in North Indian style' or 'a dress made of North Indian silk'. In the latter case "North" is to "Indian", as "Indian" is to "silk", and the n elements are examples of depth recursive elements. The two different relationships may be shown respectively as follows:

i) a (North Indian) (silk) dress
 $d_b \left(\begin{matrix} n_1^b & n_1^a \end{matrix} \right) \left(n_2 \right) h$

ii) a North Indian silk dress
 $a_b \left(\begin{matrix} n_1^c & n_1^b & n_1^a \end{matrix} \right) h$

8. The secondary elements into which m is subdivided may be presented diagrammatically as follows:



The dots following the elements e and n signify that selections here are recursive generally in the same way as they are in sentence structure; moreover it may be justifiable to postulate that as in the sentence there is here a systemic choice at each 'tertiary' e and n element between serial/depth recursive elements. Thus e e may either be $e_1 e_2$ in serial relation or $e^b e^a$ in recursive relation² as n n may be $n_1 n_2$ or $n^b n^a$.

1. The practice of distinctly 'numbering' steps in delicacy has not been commonly followed here, but each distinct subdivision whether of elements or of classes represents a further move in delicacy.
2. Notice that while subscript a, b, c show place-ordered elements the superscript a, b, c show depth recursive elements.

8a. Since the most delicate elements of m are all subdivided on the chain axis, and since where there is any systemic choice (as at e and n), the elements enter in recursive structures, it is possible, at least, in theory to 'have' an instance of the element m which may be delicately analysed as:

$$d_a d_b d_c o_a o_b o_c e_1^b e_1^a e_2 \dots n_1^b n_1^a n_2 \dots$$

In practice however such instances of m would be very rare.

There was not even a single nominal group with all these selections in the fairly large sample analysed for this study¹.

8b. The exponent classes of these elements "grow" "more lexical" in nature as the elements get nearer and nearer² the element h on chain axis; thus while most exponents of d_a , d_b , d_c are easily describable, those at o_c are items from open lists. The very large number of the delicate elements in m , the recursive nature of the elements e and n and the "lexical" nature of the exponents of some of these elements results in making each nominal group almost an example itself. Where the text is spoken, the phonological level helps in providing information which resolves the relationship of certain items (as in sentence structure); where the text is written appeal is made very often, and most of the time unconsciously, to the co-text.

9. Any discussion of the element m is incomplete without a discussion of the element: 'submodifier'. The 'submodifier' is one of the secondary elements of the structure of the nominal group. It is

-
1. See an account of a proportion of the total nominal groups analysed for this study in Tables presented in Chapter IV of Section III: Comparison, (pp. 327-351).
 2. "nearer and nearer" does not refer to instantial sequence of the elements but to the entire chain $d o e n (h)$ where n is always "nearer" than e and so on.

different from the other secondary elements of the structure of the nominal group. It is different from the other secondary elements in two respects: (i) that it has no one fixed place on the chain axis: its order being that it always immediately precedes the element it submodifies and (ii) that it is always specific to only that element and no other.¹ In this respect it resembles a presupposing element in the structure of the sentence, which may "exist" in the sentence only if its presupposed element also "exists" in the same sentence. Some examples of submodifiers are given below:

- i) about five days
-; o_b h
- ii) not all men
-; d_a h
- iii) a very pretty girl
d_b -; e h
- iv) a legibly written letter
d_b -; n h
- v) an old somewhat dillapidated building
d_b e₁ -; e₂ h

Consider the last example in particular where a change in the actual sequence of the items will present a contrasting item. So:

a somewhat old, dillapidated building
d_b -; e₁ e₂ h

9a. Nearly all elements in **m** may claim a submodifier, though most frequently they appear to occur with the element e. Items exponent of the element -; in the nominal group are listed below:

1. Thus there is some justification for holding the view that each delicate element of the structure of the nominal group may potentially enter in recursive structures with submodifiers occurring at places b, c, d on the scale of depth.

about
 almost
 more (except when expounding o_c)
 not
 nearly
 only
 rather
 somewhat
 so
 too
 very (may not submodify the element n)

Most of these items are multivalent. Whether in a given instance they expound $-;$ or any other element of group-(or clause-) structure may be checked by shifting the actual sequence of the items. If the item expounds $-;$ such change normally results in meaningless items (as in the examples i - iv above) and at other occasions in a change of meaning (as in the last example above).

Items 'too' and 'so' stand out as rather special exponents of $-;$ when they submodify an element e . The item 'so' may submodify the element e only in groups with the item 'a' expounding the element d_b ; in conjunction to this, the selection of 'so' as $-;$ leads to a reversion of the unmarked sequence of the items. So consider:

i) a beautiful girl
 d_b e h
 so beautiful a girl¹
 $-;$ e d_b h
 * a so beautiful girl
 d_b $-;$ e h

1. The change in order from this to "a girl so beautiful/a burden too great" presents a different structure of the group. Here because the items 'beautiful' and 'great' follow the element h they are regarded as exponents of non-rankshifted q elements, and the submodifiers are therefore $-;$ to q , in structure $d_b h -;$ q .

- ii) a great burden
 $d_b \quad e \quad h$
 too great a burden¹
 $-; \quad e \quad d_b \quad h$
 * a too great burden
 $d_b \quad -; \quad e \quad h$

As the examples show the items 'too' and 'so' share certain features of patterning. Notice that in neither case may the item expounding the element h belong to the subclass of the words "h-plural".

9b. A submodifier may submodify items operating at the element h or the exponents of the elements of the structure of q elements in the nominal groups.

10. The primary elements of the group are distinguished by reference to the element 'h' as the primary elements S/C/Z are distinguished by reference to the element P in clause structure. Since every nominal group must consist of at least an element h, wherever in the structure of the clause there is an element habitually expounded by the nominal groups, the exponent item (unless quotative) must have at least the structure = h. This results in our treating rankshifted clauses as an exponent of h, if their function in clause structure is that of S or C. The types of clauses that may expound the elements S or C in the clause and therefore the element h of the structure of the nominal group have been discussed above.²

-
1. The change in order from this to "a girl so beautiful/a burden too great" presents a different structure of the group. Here because the items 'beautiful' and 'great' follow the element h they are regarded as exponents of non-rankshifted q elements, and the submodifier are therefore -; to q, in structure $d_b h -; q$.
 2. See the discussion of the types of clauses exponent of various clause classes in Chapters IIB, C 1-3, D, E 1-3 above.

10a. The classes of words which can expound the element h consist of highly multivalent items. Every word capable of expounding h may also expound a delicate element in m. So compare the following:

- | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| i) | <u>one</u> question | ; the <u>one</u> |
| | $o_b \quad h$ | $d_b \quad h$ |
| ii) | the <u>poor</u> people | ; the <u>poor</u> |
| | $d_b \quad e \quad h$ | $d_b \quad h$ |
| iii) | <u>Indian</u> music | ; the first <u>Indian</u> |
| | $n \quad h$ | $d_b \quad o_a \quad h$ |
| iv) | <u>all</u> the people | ; <u>All</u> (was lost) |
| | $d_a \quad d_b \quad h$ | h |
| v) | all the <u>usual</u> people | ; (It was) quite usual |
| | $d_a \quad d_b \quad d_c \quad h$ | $-; \quad h$ |
| vi) | the <u>first</u> book | ; The <u>first</u> (arrived late) |
| | $d_b \quad o_a \quad h$ | $d_b \quad h$ |
| vii) | <u>this</u> house | ; <u>This</u> (is the house) |
| | $d_b \quad h$ | h |
| viii) | the <u>prettier</u> girl | ; (She was) <u>prettier</u> |
| | $d_b \quad o_c \quad h$ | h |
| ix) | a <u>red</u> sari | ; (It was) <u>red</u> |
| | $d_b \quad e \quad h$ | h |
| x) | a <u>singing</u> girl | ; loud <u>singing</u> |
| | $d_b \quad n \quad h$ | $e \quad h$ |

10b. There is no implication that the contextual meaning of the items remains unchanged whether they expound an element in m or the element h. As will be observed such change is a matter of degree, and

wherever items are multivalent, the various 'values' correspond to various contextual meanings. So compare:

- i) Half the library (is painted blue)
 $d_a \quad d_b \quad h$
- ii) The library half (" " ")
 $d_b \quad n \quad h$

One sub-class of words which is entirely univalently an exponent of the element h is 'noun-plural', though some restricted exceptions may be found to the rule. For example

foreign languages teaching materials project
 $e \quad n^c \quad n^b \quad n^a \quad h$

11. The element q follows immediately after the element ' h '.

More delicately q may be subdivided along the two axes of chain and choice.

On the chain axis any element q may enter in serial or in depth recursion,

thus yielding elements $q_1 \quad q_2 \quad \dots$ and $q_a \quad q_b \quad \dots$ respectively¹. On the

chain axis, the element q may be subdivided into rankshifted and non-

rankshifted q , where q is rankshifted, a further subclassification is possible

that of q^K and q^A i.e. at rankshifted q may be selected a clause as exponent,

or an adverbial group. Clearly the two axes are independent of each other,

though it may be observed that a nonrankshifted q most frequently occurs

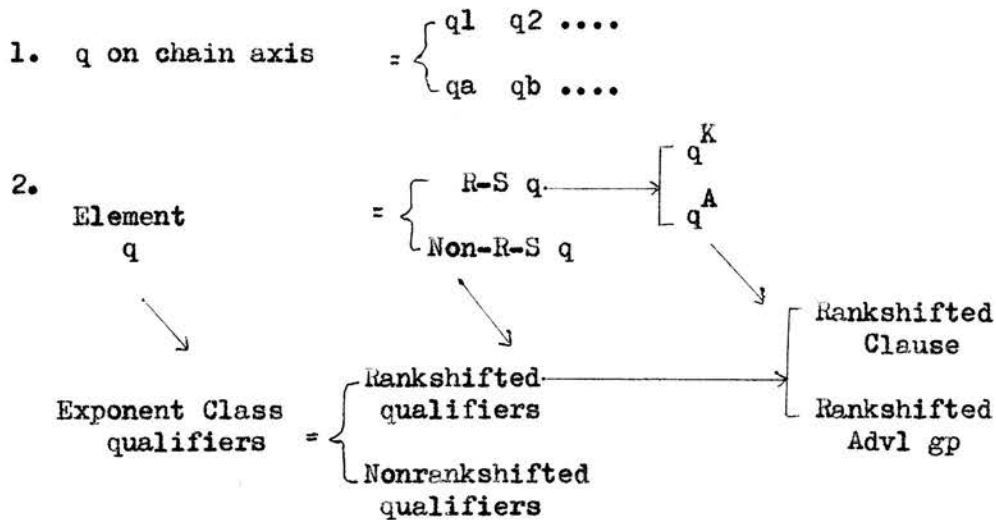
immediately after h but this is by no means obligatory and in the text some

nominal groups were encountered which 'had' a nonrankshifted q not at place

1 or a in recursive structure. The picture regarding the element q may

be presented as follows:

-
1. Since only the order of recursion is pertinent to secondary elements in q , therefore the distinction of super-script is not necessary; a and b are places on depth scale, as 1 and 2 are places in serial recursion.



A combination of all these various secondary elements in the q results in very complicated nominal group structure. Some of the details of these are discussed later.¹ The complications are basically a result of the combination of the two types of recursive structures.

11a. Almost any item at h may be followed by a nonrankshifted q element, but the following items show a greater tendency to do so.

These items are:

something
anything
nothing
everything
someone
anyone
everyone
nobody
anybody
everyone
everybody
No one

Some particular items and some sub-classes of words in particular show a greater tendency to expound the nonrankshifted q element. The following list is not exhaustive but presents a fairly large range of such items. An example of each item acting as nonrankshifted q is presented

1. See Comparison, Section III, Chapter IV, pages 337-340.

in brackets opposite each individual item:

- | | |
|-------|----------------------------------|
| other | (nothing <u>other</u> than that) |
| else | (everything <u>else</u>) |
| all | (we <u>all</u>) |
| both | (we <u>both</u>) |
| too | (this <u>too</u>) |
| less | (nothing <u>less</u>) |
| more | (" <u>more</u>) |
-
1. { better } { something better }
 - { worse } { " worse }
 - { prettier } { " prettier }
 2. { awful } { " awful }
 - { dreadful } { " dreadful }
 3. { angry } { the girls angry at this treatment }
 - { beautiful } { a girl beautiful to look at }

Words in brackets 1, 2 and 3 are representative of the word-classes to which they belong i.e., comparative word-class and two subclasses of the 'epithet'. The class of words in 2 and 3, when they are acting as non-rankshifted q, do not tend to accept many submodifiers, which they would normally accept in their function as exponents of the element e. The acceptable submodifiers to such q are as stated below:

so
too
not
very
more
less
quite
somewhat
rather

Words of the comparative class when acting as nonrankshifted q may accept as submodifiers items 'much' and 'not', while the other items listed

above as exponents of the nonrankshifted q do not accept any submodifiers at all.

11b. The types of clauses which when rankshifted may expound the element q^K have been discussed in detail in earlier chapters¹. The types may be summarized as:

$S^d P$

$S^d P (S^d = \text{that, which, who})^2$

$C^d S P (C^d = ", ", \text{who(m)})^2$

$A^d S P (A^d = ", \text{when, where})^2$

P^d - participial (= -en ; -ing)

P^d - infinitival (= to -)

Examples of each type in that order are presented below:

- i) "...the thoroughly competent civil servants the country's got..."
- ii) "...the logic that stares anyone in the face..."
- iii) "...anything that this attractive girl might say..."
- iv) "...in the broad daylight where he could .. walk..."
- v) "...the minute figure dwarfed to a speck..."
- vi) "...It's³ been the greatest privilege to me knowing Simon..."
- vii) "...I found it³ difficult to believe..."

11c. Rankshifted q^A elements are expounded by the rankshifted adverbial groups. Of the rankshifted q elements q^A is the most "popular" selection.

1. See Chapters IIB, C 1-3, D and E 1-3 above.
2. List of the items that may expound the relevant element if members of the type may be rankshifted as q . The superscript d is maintained to show that types are primarily relevant to dependent clauses.
3. In both examples vi and vii the item 'it' is the exponent of h to which the underlined 'knowing Simon' and 'to believe' act as q . These are instances of discontinuous q elements.

Since adverbial groups expound the element A of clause structure, and since the elements may occur immediately after the elements S and C, some criterion is needed to distinguish between those adverbial groups which are nonrankshifted and therefore exponents of the element A in clause structure and those which are rankshifted and therefore the exponents of q^A . Thus consider:

- i) other parallels from classical mythology.
- ii) Vulgar things like that.

Both the underlined items when presented thus, may be interpreted as q to "parallel" and "things", respectively. But compare the above version with the following:

- i) "...what other parallels from classical mythology she might have found...."
 - ii) "...to talk of vulgar things like that..."
- Both items above may be rewritten as follows:
- i) "...what other parallels she might have found from classical mythology..."
 - ii) ...to talk like that of vulgar things...

It will be noticed that some change in meaning is brought about by this change in actual sequence, and also that the resultant change varies in the two cases. In the first case the change is so delicate that it seems difficult to say what it corresponds to in contextual terms, in the second case the change in meaning is quite obvious. It is intuitively felt that the degree of change in meaning by change in the actual sequence depends on various factors related not only to the nature of the adverbial groups, and the clause structure, but also to the exponent items of some of the elements of clause structure. Where the change is obvious

as in the second example above and agrees with the interpretation admitted by the cotext, the adverbial group may be treated as an exponent of the element A in the clause.

In general the presence of the item "the" at d_p sets an expectation that the following adverbial group may be an exponent of rankshifted q^A , but in the last resort, cases of ambiguity are resolved by reference to the cotext.

11c.i The class of adverbial groups that can expound a rankshifted q^A is the secondary class called: 'Prepositional'. The structure of these is 'pc'; at p operate a class of prepositions, at c operate rankshifted nominal groups or clauses. The class of words expounding p may further be subclassified according to whether they are highly univalent or not. Two lists A and B are presented below A consisting of items which are normally exponents of p in the prepositional and B of items which may either expound p of the prepositional or an 'a' element of the adverbial, or act as nonrankshifted q:

A: to	B: along
by	after
from	as
at	across
on	around
for	before
under	off
upon	over
round	since
of	up
into	in
like	between
beyond	below
than	above
except	
despite	

Again the contextual meaning of the items from list B in their different functions is different.¹ Thus consider a few items:

1. There is no implication that the difference is always of the same kind or degree, thus compare "the room below" and "below the room".

- i) He went off early (A = 'a')
He picked it off ~~the floor~~ (A = p.φ)
- ii) We walked along quietly (A = 'a')
Along ~~the wall~~ grew a creeper (A = p.φ)
- iii) Don't do it since you don't like it ($A^d = a$)
I haven't seen you since ~~last year~~ (A = p.φ)
- iv) It is over (A = 'a')
the long discussion over ~~a trivial point~~ (A = p.φ)

The above examples also incidentally provide instances of rankshifted nominal groups acting as c in a 'pc' structure of the prepositional. All such nominal groups have been underlined by dots. Sometimes the element p may be expounded by "double" prepositions. A representative list of such prepositions is presented below:

As for
on to
out of
over to
save for
because of
in spite of
instead of
according to
in front of
in keeping with
on account of
due to

All members of the list here are like the members of the list A above in that they require a nominal group acting as c to them, before they may expound an A element. However some of the items may, in addition to taking rankshifted nominal groups as c, also accept a rankshifted clause at c. Such clauses belong to the nonfinite type specially those with a present participial P element.

Rankshifted q^A may be expounded only by a rankshifted prepositional with the structure 'pc', while the item at c in pc is itself always a

rankshifted item whether a nominal group or a clause.

11c.ii In the present analysis all rankshifted items are signified by the opening of a square bracket [, which closes] when the item is complete. The only exception to this general notational rule is that no nominal group rankshifted as c in the structure pc is shown within the square brackets, because the very fact of their following immediately after p is always an indication that the item at c is a rankshifted item. So an item such as "with his depression" is noted as 'pd_bh'.

The nominal group rankshifted to act as c enjoys the full selection of all delicate elements of the structure of a nominal group. Therefore the h of such a group may be followed in its turn by a nonrankshifted q or a rankshifted q^K or q^A. This is the basis of the depth recursion in q elements. The beginning of each such rankshifted q element is signified by the opening of a new square bracket. An example is presented below:

"A glimpse of the minute figure in..a dirty raincoat..."

$$d_b \quad h \quad [p \quad db \quad e \quad [h \quad [p \quad db \quad e \quad h]]]$$

In the above notation the outer-most bracket refers to the q_a element the next to qb and so on.

11c.iii One thing is common to both types of recursive structures in q - neither the serial nor the depth recursion is entirely independent of sequence, thus neither qb may precede qa nor q2, q1. On the other hand while in the serial relation what follows q1 must be q2 what follows q2 must be q3, in depth recursion the structure q^aq₁^bq₂^b are quite possible. Some examples of recursive structures in q are presented below:

"the red herring of his projected work on England under Edward"

$$m \quad h \quad q_a \quad q_b \quad q_c$$

The hq relations may be broken as follows:

"the red herring of his projected work

d_b h q

work on England

h q

England under Edward

h q

The above is an example of a "pure" recursive q^A structure; a parallel "pure" q^K structure is presented below:

"those who owe all that they know to Stokesay"

h [qa [qb]]¹

The hq relations of the item may be presented as follows:

those who owe all ... to Stokesay

h q

all that they know

h q

Such "pure" recursive q structures are not very common. Mostly the recursive structures in q present a combination of q^A and q^K . The example below will illustrate what is meant by "combination".

"the cause of the logic that stares anyone in the face who knows..."

m h q^A_a q^K_b q^K_c

The hq relations of the item are resolved as shown below:

the cause of the logic

m h q

the logic that stares anyone in the face

h q

anyone ... who knows

h q

1. A double square bracket, as here, shows that the rankshifted item is included within the preceding item.

The above are all examples of depth recursion in q. q elements in serial recursion may or may not be actually "linked", but in both cases, whether linked or serial each q element is to h as every other q element of the serial recursive q is to h. For example consider:

- i) nonsense in the News Chronicle about a man like Simon
 h q1 q2
- ii) the prospect of speaking to his wife... and ... of the
 m h q1 & q2
 family Christmas party...

In both examples q2 may be related to h directly. In the first example there is no linking item to account for, nor, indeed, can a linking relation be established between the two q elements in the above instance. If we wished to write example i) as follows the item would be perfectly acceptable:

nonsense about a man like Simon ... in the News Chronicle.

But in the second case the linked q may not follow h immediately, though if the linking item remains at the q boundaries, the two exponents of q elements may change places. So consider:

The prospect of the family Christmas party ... and ... of speaking to his wife.

Because of the essential likeness between serial and linked q elements both are shown as q1 q2, but in the case of the linked q recursion the structure is symbolized as q1 & q2.

The two types of the recursive q structures may combine within the same nominal group and such combination like the combination of $q^A q^K$ is more frequent than "pure" serial or "pure" depth recursion. Thus consider an example:

"the minute figure in battered felt hat and in a dirty rain coat, dwarfed to a speck beneath the towering column of the Duke of York..."

The structure of the group may be stated as

$$m h [q_1^A] \& [q_2^A] [q_a^K [q_b^A [q_c^A [q_d^A]]]]_3$$

The relevant hq relations may be shown as follows:

the minute figure in battered felt hat	
d _b e h q	
figure in a dirty rain coat	
h q	
figure dwarfed to a speck	
h q	
speck beneath the towering column	
h q	
column of the duke	
h q	
duke of York	
h q	

Notice that "figure" is "qualified" thrice by the three serial and linked q elements, and that the third q element of the serial recursion consists of a set of depth recursive q elements. The depth recursive q elements in this respect are like a co-complex in sentence structure which pertains only to one place on depth scale. Here the relationship is reversed: the depth recursive q elements pertain only to one place in serial recursion. From this point the term "recursive" will be used with reference to q, only to signify depth recursion, while serial will be used to signify serial and linking recursions.

A combination of non-rankshifted q is also possible both in the serial and the recursive q structures. Consider the following:

- i) "Anything more ghastly than all that fake Regency"
 h qa [qb]
- ii) "The eyes of innocence so sane and appreciative of the
 d_b h qa q₁^b & q₂^b [
 daring wrong...."
 qc]

When it is remembered that in theory each nominal group whether rankshifted or not may select any number of these combinations recursively, the potential complexities of the structure of the nominal group may be appreciated.

12. As pointed out in an earlier discussion¹ more than one nominal groups may expound only one element of the structure of the clause or the element c in pc structure of the prepositional. Where only one nominal group is the exponent of one element it has been referred to as "single group", where more than one groups expound the same identical element, they are referred to as "multiple group". Each individual group of a multiple group enjoys the freedom of the selection of the full range of all the secondary elements of the group.

12a. There are two ways of "multiplicity" open to the nominal group - we may describe these as "series" and "apposition". While "series" is a term which applies to all groups in a list-relation no matter how many such groups there are in a series, apposition itself may be more delicately subdivided into "single apposition" and "double apposition" where "double" implies more than one. It is not necessary for a group to immediately follow the h element of the group to which it stands in an apposition relation. Some examples are presented below. The apposition relation

1. See Chapter IIB, 2 - 2f, pp 81-83 above.

is signified by a :: where the boundary of the group in apposition starts.

- i) "his sister-in-law, your hostess"

$d_b \quad h \quad :: \quad d_b \quad h$

$STR = d_b h :: d_b h$

- ii) "One of the most odious women - an absurd

$h \quad [p \quad db \quad o_a \quad e \quad h] :: d_b \quad e$

example of that outdated enormity " the new woman...."

$h \quad [p \quad db \quad n \quad h] :: d_b \quad e \quad h$

$STR = h q :: d_b e h q :: d_b e h$

- iii) the last decadence that plutocracy has reached

$d_b \quad o_a \quad h \quad [A \quad S \quad P$

in our declining civilization - money without the

$A \quad] :: h \quad p \quad db$

confidence of its power

$h \quad p \quad d_b \quad h$

$STR = d_b o_a h qK :: h q_a q_b$

12b. Nominal groups in series may either be in list relation without linking or be linked. The following items act as the linking item between two nominal groups:

if (as in "pleasant, if flat")
but
or
and
rather - , than -
whether - , or -
not (only) - , but (also) -
rather than
though

Of these items "if" and "though" are very restrictive: only words of the same secondary class may be linked by these items. Thus if we have two uninterrupted nominal groups such as

John if possible (will do)

"if" may not be a linking item since "John" and "possible" belong to two different secondary classes of words at h.

Where two or more h elements are linked, it may either be a case of linking between simple nominal groups or of the words exponent of the element h, since linked items expound only one identical element at this rank. Thus consider:

i) "Theo and Jasper were in wait"

S P A

Linking between simple gps = h & h

ii) Mrs. Salad's black-dyed curls and fur toque with eye-veil

S

shook in disgust.

Linking between compd gps = d_b n h & n h q

Two nominal groups standing in apposition to the same nominal group may also be linked. As an example, consider:

.... the same present - a five-pound note and a large pink

d_b d_c h :: d_b n h & d_b e e

cyclamen in a gilded basket tied with pink ribbon...

h q q

STR = $d_b d_c$ h :: d_b n h & d_b e e h q_a q_b

12c. Mutual linking is also observed to occur between nominal groups. The list of linking items for the groups is larger than it is for the clauses. The linking items are:

either	or
whether	or
neither	nor
not (only)	but (also)
both	and
first	then
if not	at least

Some examples of mutual linking are presented below, with the linking items underlined:

- i) "...(sucking) first pleasure then drug then nothing"
STR = & h & h & h
- ii)either wholly incapable or heroically ready...
STR = & - h & - h
- iii)not the unlocking of the door ... but the will
to step across the threshold....
STR = & d_p h q & d_p h q

It is interesting to note that most groups in mutual linking relation bear a 'similar' structural pattern.

12d. Linking is also possible between words exponent of the identical secondary elements in m. The comparative study of the nominal groups from the text was not carried to the degree of delicacy where linking between words would also be compared. Any detailed discussion of the problems at word-rank will therefore not be discussed.

13. Some "uncharacteristic" items are considered as members of the nominal group on the ground that they may expound the elements S/C/Z. These groups are "uncharacteristic" because they do not carry the favourite morphological pattern of the nominal group. Such items are often referred to as either "fixed" or "idiomatic" expressions, and are normally grouped together upon some contextual criteria. An example would be the "swear-words", a list of which is presented below:

who the hell
 who the Dickens
 what the hell
 what the Dickens
 what on earth
 who in the name of (God
 {the devil
 {all that's sacred})

There are very restricted possibilities of changes (like "what the bloody hell", for instance). Such expressions may structurally be analysed by stretching the point and considering them as in the first four examples hq or $h :: d_b h$, and the last two as $h q$ structures, but any such analysis is essentially incapable of pointing out the significance of the item. Consequently these items were only noted down as items and not analysed grammatically, i.e. they were treated as if they represented one lexical item.

13a. Another set of such uncharacteristic items consists of those which bear a PC relation but in each case the expression is fixed, so that no change in either the exponent of P or of C may be made without destroying their idiomatic character. These are as follows:

fall asleep
get rid of -
get hold of -
make fun of -
take care of -
make an end of -
put an end to -
cut loose from -
break loose from -
stand guard
keep step
break step

These items have been abstracted from the analysed text. The list is not exhaustive. Items with a dash in front of them are necessarily followed by a rankshifted q R-S q for obvious reasons.

13b. The following list consists of items which were treated as exponents of C if the item exponent of P was a form of verb "to be"/"to look/seem/appear".

mixed up
put out
taken up with
eaten up with
washed out
bound to be
set apart

13c. Items from the past-participial class of words are often "deverbalised" and act as exponents of the element C in the clause. Such items are treated as C if they may be submodified by the item "very" and if they are preceded by P the exponent of which is "to be/seem/look/appear". A list of such "deverbalized" items is given below:

disgusted¹
lost
shocked
nettled
privileged
mixed up
concerned
delighted
determined
depleted
outraged
fixed up
bored
ashamed
horrified
advanced
finished
accustomed
inclined
impressed
apalled
sophisticated
involved
unperturbed
interested
overcome
preoccupied
resigned

A small number of the present participial word can also, under the same general conditions, expound the element C. These are some of the items:

overpowering²
surprising
disgusting
gratifying
promising
interesting
shocking
boring.

-
1. Each of these items has occurred as exponent of the element C in the text at least once.
 2. Each of these items has occurred at C in the text at least once.

13d. The last list is of the items that can again expound the element C if "to be/seem/appear/look" expound the element P. The list is stated separately because in their morphology the items look more like the adverbial groups than the nominal groups but these items do not behave like the rest of the adverbial groups and since they positively behave like a nominal group, expounding C, they are listed in this section under the nominal group. These are:

(to be)	out of place
	all very well
	far worse off
	better off
	badly off
	well off
	out of one's depth.

CHAPTER IIIB - The Adverbial Group.

1. The element A in clause structure is habitually expounded by the adverbial group, though a certain class of the nominal group may also expound a certain secondary element A. In discussing the exponent types of clauses some of the functions of the element A and some of its exponent items have been mentioned¹. The A element is different from the other primary elements of clause structure, approximately speaking in two ways: (a) that it is the most mobile element of clause structure and (b) that in theory there is no limit to how many A elements may be selected within the same clause.

1a. "Mobility" like sequence is a variable. It is clear that the concept of "mobility" would be meaningless without that of "place-determined" elements, but a certain degree of variation is allowed even to the place-determined elements. Consider for example the place-determined elements S, C and Z in clause-structure. These are allowed some variation, but not only are such possibilities very limited but also they correspond to certain systemic choices². So the variation from SP to P((S)) corresponds to some of the choices in the mood system as that between SPC/Z and C/Z SP does to the choices in the theme system. With the element A the contrast between the initial and non-initial places, alone, is referable to a secondary systemic choice in the theme system. Factors which determine the selection of medial rather than final, first-medial rather than second-medial and other such variations presumably pertain to a more delicate contrast than is handled at the secondary degree of delicacy. The term

1. See Chapter IIB (especially 2d.i and 2f), Chapter IIC (especially types with the elements A^x, A⁺ or A^o) Chapter IID (especially types with A^o elements) and Chapter IIE 1 (thematic-A element).

2. See Chapter IIB for the Mood System and Chapters IIE 1-2 for the systems of Theme and Transitivity.

"mobility" as distinct from "variation" is used here to signify that contrasts carried by such freedom of movement are not pertinent to secondary systemic contrasts.

1b. Like the number of the element Z, the number of A elements that may be selected in the same clause is theoretically unlimited, but there is this difference in detail. Between two P elements in phase clauses only one element Z may be selected, whereas all the "places" generally describable with reference to other elements of clause structure e.g. the place between S and P, the place between P and C, the clause-final and the clause-initial places, represent places where the element A may be selected repeatedly (or successively). So that the initial statement¹ regarding the potential occurrences of the element A in the clause structure should be modified to read as:

$$(A \dots) S(A \dots) P(A \dots) C(A \dots)^2$$

These places are referred to from left to right as clause-initial, first-medial, second-medial and clause-final respectively. The clause-final place appears to be more often successively selected than any others, but both initial and medial A were also observed³ to occur successively, though less often. The second-medial A may sometimes be "included" within the exponent item of P. Regarding the second-medial place, it may further be observed that its status depends upon the presence of the element C. If there is no element C in the clause, an A element following the element P is, ipso facto, a clause-final A. Similarly the one immediately preceding the element P acquires the clause-initial status if there is no S element in the clause, e.g. in the imperative clauses. These various

1. See 2 f., p. 83 in Chapter IIB above.

2. The dots signify that the number of A elements is optional, as the brackets signify that the selection of none of these places is obligatory primarily. There are however exceptions as with the types with A^d elements.

3. For details, see Section III Chapter III Tables 10-18

places in clause structure may be selected in isolation or in combination. Some examples are presented below to illustrate the selections of A elements, the exponents of A elements being underlined:

- i) "At first the day passed in pain"
(Kl-initial and final) (A-S.A., p.156)
- ii) "Out of our common indifference to mere physical fact,
came answers that varied"
(Kl-initial) (F.F., p.11)
- iii) ".....beyond it, at the back of the square was a
sentry box"
(2, Kl-initial) (F.F., p.19)
- iv) "Alice clearly left the room with a very bad grace."
(first-medial and final) (A-S.A., p.156)
- v) "She began at once to cut away the boot."
(first-medial, included) (A-S.A., p.156)
- vi) "There is behind all this mummery a peculiarly"
foolish sort of egalitarianism"
(second medial) (A-S.A., p.151)
- vii) "They lunched at Aigues Mortes in a little restaurant
in the central square looking across at the statue
of Frederic Mistral"
(3, Kl-final) (A-S.A., p.111)

Notice that nearly every exponent of the element A may move to a place other than the one it "has" already, without primarily changing the meaning of the item. Whether a particular item exponent of the element A may 'float' from one place to another in a given instance, depends on various factors.

2. The statement regarding the mobility of the element A, is an approximate one. More delicately, there are certain A elements which have an entirely "fixed" place, and any 'floating' on their part may result

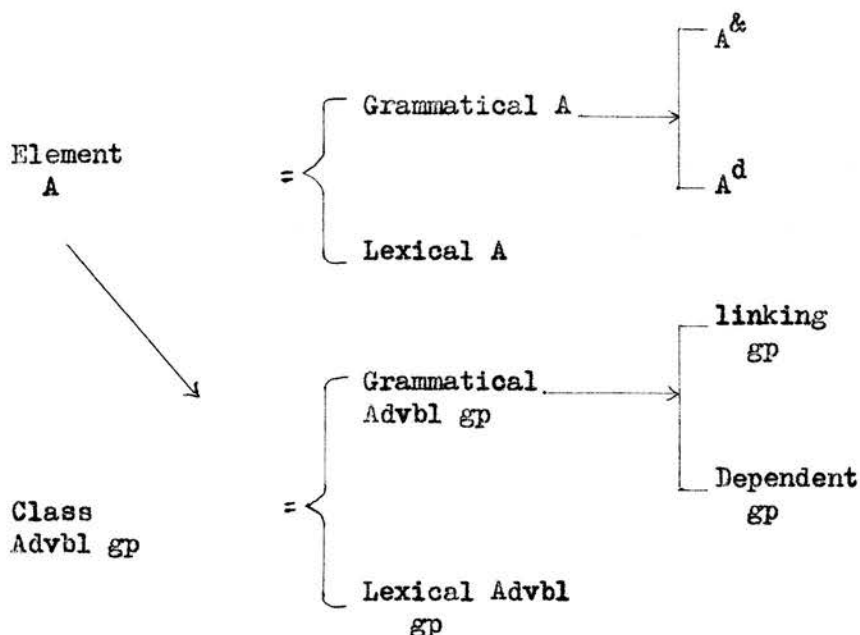
in a primary change of meaning. Consider for example the two pairs below:

1. a) "At first the day passed in pain...."
- b) The day passed in pain at first
2. a) Before he had read the book
- b) He had read the book before.

In the second pair a multivalent item has been selected deliberately to illustrate the change in meaning even in cases where because of the special multivalent nature of the item the clause 2.b) is not rendered meaningless or unacceptable. However, A elements exponent of A^d or $A^{\&}$ are entirely restricted as to what places in clause structure they may have. Where the item is multivalent as in the above example any 'floating' results in a primary change of meaning or in unacceptable utterances. Consider for example:

- a) If he had read the book
- b) He had read the book if.

2a. This distinction between the fixed elements A and the 'mobile' A elements is made the basis for the subdivision of the primary element A into "grammatical A" and "lexical A". "Grammatical A" elements are both place- and class-determined. Their exponents are always treated as a member of the adverbial. These exponents may be listed finitely and nearly all relevant information regarding these may be handled by grammar. The lexical A elements are only negatively class-determined; what is not "grammatical adverbial group" is logically, "lexical adverbial group". Being primarily "fixed", the grammatical A elements are not relevant to the system of theme, but may be subdivided with reference to linking and dependent presupposition. Thus we may present the choices at the clause-initial place in the following manner:



The linking A is comparatively freer and may be further subdivided into A[&]-initial A[&]-medial and A[&]-final with corresponding classes of the linking group¹.

2b. A lexical A element that may occur in the clause-initial place is a thematic A element and is in contrast with the non-thematic A elements. The full range of the choice of places available to A element is open to every member of the lexical adverbial group, but certain places are primarily associated with certain classes of the group. Generally it may be said that the medial and the clause-final A elements are expounded by the adverbial² and the prepositional² respectively. The position is, however not as simple as that. It is possible for us to have a medial A element expounded by the prepositional and the final A by the adverbial. In such cases the element thus expounded is considered a marked A element. To illustrate:

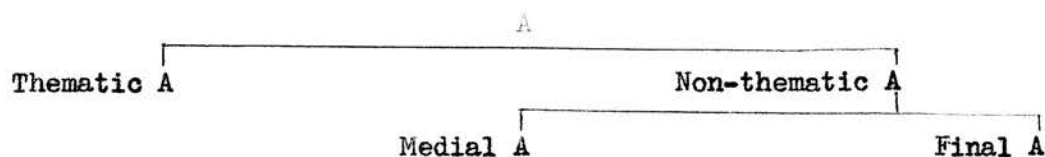
1. For the exponents of these different classes of linking A see page 165 (Chapter IID, 3) above.

2. The "adverbial" is the secondary class of the adverbial group and the word "group" is omitted to signify this distinction; the "prepositional" is the secondary class of the adverbial group with a 'pc' structure.

- i) a) "There is behind all this mummery a peculiarly....
foolish sort of egalitarianism...."
(Medial A expounded by Prepositional : marked A)
- b) There is a peculiarly ...foolish sort of egalitarianism
behind all this mummery
(Final A expounded by Prepositional : unmarked A)
- ii) a) It irked Lillian Portway often....
(Final A expounded by Adverbial : marked A)
- b) "It often irked Lillian Portway"
(Medial A expounded by Adverbial : unmarked A)

Thus it appears that the lexical element A may be approached from two different directions. A lexical A may be thematic or non-thematic: this subdivision is strictly by reference to the chain axis, and neither the thematic nor the non-thematic A elements are class-determined. In fact this follows logically from the very nature of the system of theme which handles the variation in sequence of those elements which in the change of sequence do not necessarily change their meaning primarily as for example does the element A^d when expounded by "before".¹ The non-thematic A element may be subdivided on both the axes of chain and choice: it may be 'medial' or 'final' on the chain axis according to whether it is marked or unmarked. These choices may be represented in two diagrams as follows:

Chain axis:



Choice axis:



1. See examples 1.a) and b) on page 226 above.

The chain and choice subdivisions of the nonthematic A element when combined, produce four secondary A elements i.e. Medial A marked, Medial A unmarked, Final A marked and Final A unmarked.

2c. It is expected that a more detailed study of such contrasts would be revealing with respect to the degree of mobility enjoyed by a specific class expounding a specific A element in the clause. Intuitively, it does seem as if we have double thematic contrasts in clauses as far as the elements A are concerned, so that while the secondary thematic A clause draws attention to the "topic" more markedly, there may be a succession of "degrees of markedness", being conveyed by the selection of marked A elements in medial and final places.

3. The prepositional has been discussed¹ in some detail before. Suffice it to say here that having within its structure a nominal group (rankshifted), it commands all the complex structures open to the nominal group. In addition it may accept the present participial non-finite P-K1, primarily associated with the conditioning clause class.

3a. The secondary class called the "adverbial" does not act as a rankshifted q element, but the simple type exponent of this class, is largely multivalent, so that it may either expound a submodifier or a non-rankshifted q² in addition to being primarily associated with the adverbial A elements. Thus consider "often" and "peculiarly" in the following items:

1. a) "It often irked Lillian Portway"
 b) She walked peculiarly.
2. a) the often quoted example.
 b) this peculiarly funny story

1. See Chapter IIIA (especially 11c.ii, p. 212 above)

2. See Chapter IIIA, especially the list of the exponents of non-rankshifted q elements (p. 207) and the list of submodifiers (p. 202)

In the examples 1. a) and b) the underlined items are the exponents of the element A, while in 2.a) and b) they act as submodifiers.

3b. The exponents of the adverbial can be subdivided into four types. As the first type we may consider the class of words ending in -ly. A majority of words from the epithet-class have a corresponding item with -ly in this class. Thus:

Beautiful	beautifully
happy	happily
peculiar	peculiarly
special	specially

and many others. All these words are capable of expounding the A element in clause structure and the submodifier in the group structure. Their own structure is stated just as 'a', standing for 'adverb' which is the traditional label for words of this class. All these items are capable of accepting submodifiers such as, for instance, some stated below:

as
so
very
extremely
how
not
more

When expounding the element A the -ly words may also accept a qualifying element which is again signified as "q". Consider for instance:

(She sang) more beautifully than anyone else

-; a [p h q]

The structure of this adverbial may primarily be stated as -;aq;
at q we have a rankshifted prepositional.

3c. The second type, exponent of the element 'a' of the adverbial are words of the following kind: the majority of these are words concerning

time and/or place and/or manner and/or 'response' i.e. answer, exclamation, hesitation-markers and so on.

The items are listed as one primary class on the ground that they can expound the element 'a', but have been subdivided into four lists according to their contextual functions 1: Corresponding to 'place', 2: to time, 3: to manner and 4: to response etc.

1: here	2: never	3: too	4: yes
there	always	also	no
away	now	more	well
out	forever	much	yeah
back	ever	such	hi!
along	yet	so	er ...
off	perhaps	even	mm ..
round	again	least	ha!
by	once		oh
about	twice		
across	before		
over	early		
above	late		
down			
in/inside			
outside			
below			

All other words not belonging to the -ly type of the exponents of 'a', but capable of expounding an A element with the simple structure 'a' are regarded as belonging to this second type, All the items of this second type are again capable of accepting the submodifier and q elements, though the range of the items exponent of -; and q is rather limited and varies from item to item of the above list.

3d. The third type of the word is a compound type of the adverbial consisting of more than one word, but these are so arranged and fixed that either loses its particular significance as the exponent of the element A if they are separated. A list of such items is given below; these will be referred to as idiomatic A.

of course
 all right
 after all
 at least
 now and again
 again and again
 time and again
 day and night
 day after day
 night after night
 hour after hour
 in the end
 at first
 anyway
 anyhow
 as a matter of fact/course
 in fact/truth
 for example
 that is (= i.e.)
 for instance
 such as
 all the same
 all of a sudden
 by the way
 at any rate
 for the rest
 in short
 for the time being
 in a jiffy
 in general/particular
 so to say
 all at once
 side by side
 no doubt
 except that
 on the other hand
 one way and another
 to begin with
 good and proper
 year in (and) year out
 (every) now and then
 face to face
 step by step
 there and then
 man to man
 one by one
 so to speak
 which is to say

The list above, though representative, is not presented as an
 exhaustive list of the items of this type found in the texts. Although

more than one word is involved here, their structural value in the adverbial is analogous to that of the exponents of the element 'a'. Wherever such items occur they are noted down as a to differentiate them from 'a', in view of the idiomatic nature of a-types. The a may accept both a submodifier and a q element. The list of their submodifiers includes the '-ly' words as well. Thus consider:

Just there and then

-; a

Specially for the time being

-; a

This tendency raises certain problems in the identification of an -ly item as the exponent of 'a' or the submodifier in the compound adverbial, but before discussing this problem the fourth type exponent of the adverbial should be brought to notice. These are like some of the items listed under the nominal group and may be described as "swear-words". Such items are listed below:

thank (heaven
 (God

no wonder!
good God!
goodness me!
what a pity!

why in (God's)
 (devil's) name

why on earth

 (hell
why the (devil
 (dickens

my goodness!
heavens above!

 (God's)
 (heaven's)
for (devil's)
 (Christ's) sake
 (mercy's)
 (Pete's)

oh (dear
 (God

God knows
Goodness knows

The last two items in the list are not treated as the exponents of the element A if "knows" is followed by a nominal group standing in a C relation to it, or if a reported clause presupposes the entire item. The normal A place in the clause structure occupied by the 'swear-words' is the clause-initial or final place though they may occur medially also.

4. The above discussion represents all the general types of groups capable of belonging either to the prepositional¹ or to the adverbial. The total inventory of the elements entering in the structure of the adverbial group is better divided into two parts to correspond to the two secondary classes. For the prepositional the inventory is: p and c; for the adverbial it is 'a', a, q. The element submodifier is common both to the prepositional and the adverbial. The element q is specifically stated as belonging to the inventory of the adverbial but not the prepositional, because of the fact that whatever q elements enter into the structure of a prepositional act as q primarily not to the element p but to the rankshifted nominal group acting as c. So compare the two cases:

- i) more beautifully than ever
-; a [q]
- ii) "at the back of the square"
p c

'c' in the second example may be broken down as follows:

at the back of the square
p d_b h [q]

1. The Prepositional was discussed in some detail under 11c.i-ii Chapter IIIA above. See pp. 210-212.

Thus the q element is a part of the nominal group structure: mhq, and may not be regarded as pcq, while the structure of the adverbial in the above example may be stated as -;aq. It is observed that of the elements 'a' and a, the latter is far less free to admit an element q than the former. The element q when following an a is expounded by the prepositional, as notice the example above.¹ The class exponent of 'a' is multivalent; not only may some members of it act as submodifiers, but also they may act as q to another item of the same class which may expound the element 'a'.

4a. As said before this raises problems in identification, since two consecutive items from the class may in any instance be either the exponent of two successive A elements or of one, being qualified or submodified. As an example consider the two underlined items below:

- i) He woke up once today
- ii) He woke up once again

Where, as in the first example above, the two items may be separated from each other without any primary change in meaning, this feature is treated as proof that the two items are the exponents of two separate A elements, since the submodifier must always precede the item it submodifies and in the adverbial the q must always follow the 'a' or a elements without any 'interruption'. Example i) above may be rewritten as follows and is therefore treated as two separate A elements:

Today he woke up once

In contrast we may not write, without a primary change in meaning:

Once he woke up again.

1. See page 234 above, example i) under 4.

If the meaning conveyed by this change is in agreement with the cotext, "once" and "again" would be treated as two separate A elements, otherwise not. It is clear that here as elsewhere we introduce the criterion of "agreement with cotextual meaning" as the only valid means of selecting one interpretation rather than another. The grammar is expected to provide two (or more) syntactic descriptions to suit two (or more) such interpretations, but there is no implication that grammar as such helps in the actual selection of the suitable interpretation.

While it is thus possible to distinguish between two A elements or one expounded by groups with -;a/aq structure, there is a further problem of identification. If both 'once' and 'again' may in different instances expound elements -; or a or q then in any given instance is the first item an exponent of -; or of a, and the second of a or q? To use one of the examples from above: is "once again" an adverbial with -; a or aq structure? Since both elements -; and q presuppose the presence of an 'a' element, the exponent of this 'a' element may not be omitted without either rendering the clause unacceptable or changed in meaning. Depending on cotextual evidence this same item is treated as the exponent of an element 'a': and the same applies to each individual item of such consecutive selections from this class.

5. The general typical distinction of "single" and "multiple" groups expounding the same element applies to the adverbial groups as well. A certain set of rules was followed in the analysis of the text where the multiple exponents of the A elements were concerned. A general statement should be made here regarding the element c of the pc structure in the prepositional. All serial, appositional or recursive relations existing

between nominal groups or the elements of the structure of the nominal groups expounding c in pc, were considered primarily irrelevant to the prepositional as "single" or "multiple".

5a. The rules followed in the present analysis for regarding instances as "single" or "multiple" exponents of one element A may be stated as follows:

i. Each time a non-rankshifted prepositional starts with its own specific p element, the same is considered as expounding an A element.

So consider:

"....when he got on to personalities - to his fear for
Rose Lorimer, to his desire not to damage Professor
Stokesay's reputation, to his memories of Gilbert's
friendship"

(Kl-STR = ..A^x S P A₁A₂A₃A₄)

(A-S.A., p.227)

The four double underlined p elements start the boundary of a fresh A element each entering in the clause structure. Notice that the second and fourth A elements, both are expounded by prepositionals which at c have a rankshifted prepositional acting as q to the nominal groups expounding the said c elements.

ii. A prepositional with the pc structure may be mutually linked to another one with a similar structure, as in the example below:

"He continued to work both on the history and on his
own book"

(Kl-STR = S P & A₁ & A₂)

(A-S.A., p.307)

In cases of such mutual linking the two 'complete' groups are regarded as exponents of two separate elements A. So the above clause has two linked A elements.

iii. A prepositional may be linked to another one by a single or double linking item, but as long as each group has its own 'complete' structure each is considered the exponent of a separate A element. For example:

"....through all the family trouble, and despite the constant nag of the Melpham problem, he retained his new mood".

(K1-STR = A₁ & A₂ S P C)

(A-S.A., p.307)

The clause above has two A elements, the second one is linked to the first but they are regarded as separate elements.

iv. With the adverbials the rules are slightly different. For instance both mutually linked or single-linked adverbials are regarded as the exponent of only one element. Thus the constructed examples given below are both exponents of one A element each:

1. Both yesterday and today it was raining.

(K1-STR = A S P)

2. Today and the day after we shall be busy.

(K1-STR = A S P C)

Notice that the exponents of these A elements are the multivalent members of the nominal groups. Most words from the class: adverbial when linked to another word of the same class combine into an idiomatic item and therefore the question of linked or unlinked elements does not arise as consider: 'again and again' 'now and then', which are exponents of one a each. But where the combinations of such items do not fall under the definition of the (fixed) idiomatic item, these are regarded as the exponent of one A with two adverbials linked. Theoretically the possibility is left open, though no such cases were encountered in the texts.

CHAPTER IIIC - The Verbal Group.

1. Of all the classes of groups, the verbal group is the most highly univalent one. It certainly would not be consistent to regard it as entirely univalent, since in nominal groups the elements e, n, non-rankshifted q and h may be all expounded¹ by items which primarily belong to the type exponent of the simple non-finite participial verbal groups.² Neither simple non-finite infinitival nor any compound verbal groups may be multivalent. Those verbal groups which act as the exponent of the element P in rankshifted clauses are regarded as fulfilling their normal function and therefore not acting multivalently.

2. The systemic choices at the element P are better discussed, in general, with reference to the element P_1 of a phase clause, since all the systemic choices apply to this element, whereas the elements $P_2 P_3 \dots$ have certain restrictions. In the following discussion such restrictions are indicated where required.

2a. Most systemic choices at P consist, in the first place, of two terms. There are five such systems as outlined below:

- i) System of Finiteness - Terms: Finite - Non-finite
- ii) System of Contrastivity - terms: Emphatic - Non-emphatic
- iii) System of Polarity - terms: Negative - Positive
- iv) System of Voice - terms: Passive - Active
- v) System of Tense - terms: Present - Past- Future

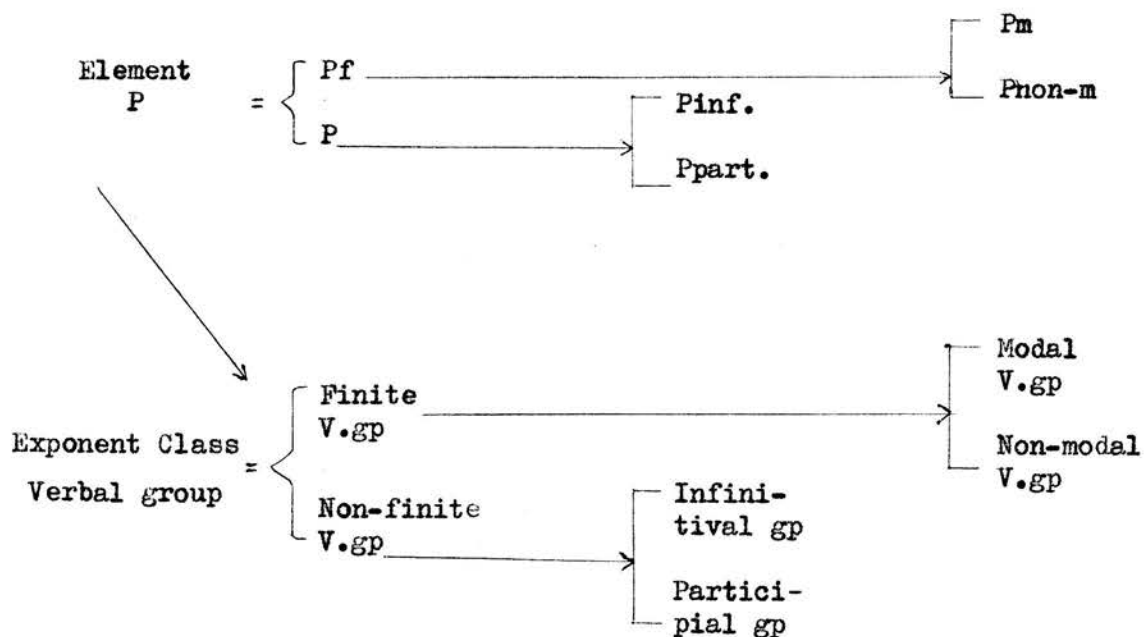
Thus except for the last one, the other choices are binary. In all these binary choices, the selection of one of the terms results in the

1. See Chapter IIIA of this section.

2. A further degree of multivalence is possessed by those particular items which in their form bear no distinction for expounding a (finite) simple past and a past participial. Thus consider: Shake, shook, shaken, but talk, talked, talked.

selection of certain exponent items which are absent if the other term is selected. The terms which are characterized by the presence of exponent items, are regarded as "marked"¹ terms and their exponents are specifically noted down in the analysis of the structure of the group. Terms expounded by the absence of such items are considered "unmarked" and the notation of the analysis of groups signifies this by making no specific reference to the system. This convention is followed systematically except for the system of tense, and will be brought out in the course of discussing the subdivisions of the element P.

3. The system of finiteness is specific only to the element P_1 , which may either be P-finite or P-non-finite. The P_2 element has a non-choice selection of the non-finite term. Therefore, though all P elements are necessarily instances of P-nonfinite, non-finite verbal groups are not univalently exponents of only P_2 . Both these secondary P-elements may be further subdivided, P-finite into P-modal and P-non-modal while P-nonfinite may be subdivided into P-participial P-infinitival. All these subdivisions are made on the choice axis and may be represented as follows:



The infinitival and the participial may still further be subdivided as follows:

P-inf.	{	t ⁻ (exponent verb 'to take') ¹
		-t (exponent verb 'take' as in "Help me <u>take</u> ")
P-part.	{	-ing (exponent verb 'writing') ¹
		-en (exponent verb 'written')

3a. The symbols used to signify these delicate P selections are as follows:

Verbal gp	- finite - modal	= fm
Verbal gp	- finite - non-modal	= f
Verbal gp	- infinitival	= t ⁻ or -t
Verbal gp	- participial	= -ing or -en

Thus supposing we have the verbal groups: 'takes', 'would take', 'to take', 'take' (as in the example above), 'taking' and 'taken', as far as selections in the system of finiteness are concerned they may be shown as below:²

takes	f
would take	= fm
to take	= t ⁻
take	= -t
taking	= -ing
taken	= -en

4. The system of tense is relevant both to the finite and the nonfinite P elements, as all P elements must choose a term from the tense system, though the choices operating within the nonfinite vary from those in the finite P. There are three terms in this system: Past, Present

-
1. Items are presented as representative of the class of words capable of these P elements.
 2. None of the other systemic selections are signified in the notation here, e.g. no symbol for the tense selections is included.

and Future. In our notation they are indicated by the following symbols.

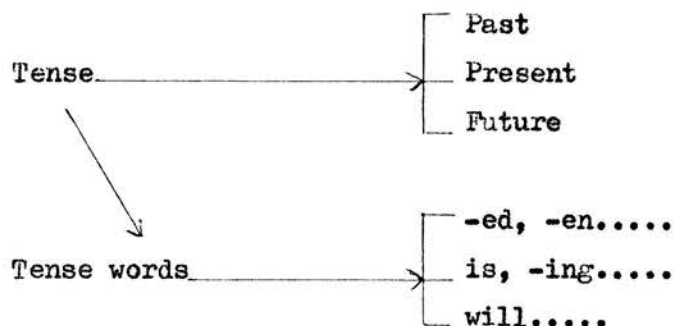
Past	=	-
Present	=	ϕ
Future ¹	=	+

4a. In the finite verbal group tense may be selected as many as five times, thus we could possibly consider simple tense, and compound tense as two choices made independently within the tense system. Simple tenses are those where only one choice is made either of past, present or future. Thus to give an example: 'took', 'takes', and 'will take' are $f-$, $f\phi$, and $f+$ respectively. But we may have compound tenses as for instance in 'was taking', 'has taken', 'will have taken', which in the present analysis are treated respectively as:

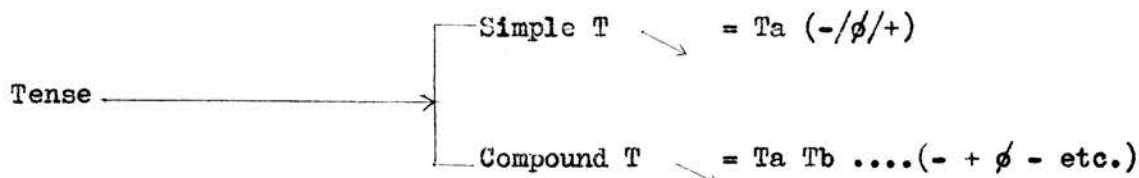
was taking	=	$f - \phi$
has taken	=	$f \phi -$
will have taken	=	$f + \phi -$

These tenses are read from right to left thus the first one would be called "present in past" and the last one "past in present in future". The five places at which these tense choices can be made are labelled Ta Tb Tc Td Te. Choices at Tb, Tc, Td, Te get respectively more and more restricted according to what tenses are selected at the previous places.

4b. The range of choices within the system of tense can be shown as below:



-
1. Note the difference between + and $+$. When a superscript the sign stands for an "adding element", when neither super- nor sub-script it is to be treated as "future".



4c. In the present analysis no tense is shown for the first word of a nonfinite verbal group: 'to have' and 'to have done' are shown as below:

to have = t^-
 to have done = t^-

The reason for this is, again, that the initial symbols themselves are explanatory of the tense and any other indication is superfluous, since in the case of a nonfinite verbal group with a simple tense selection the only selection available is that of the present tense.

5. Associated with the system of tense is the system of voice. No groups with simple tense may select the passive term, since the exponent of the passive voice is the presence of the past-participial as the last word of the group and at the same time the selection of at least one more term in the tense system.

5a. The 'passive' for reasons stated earlier is treated as the 'marked' term and is symbolized in the notation of the group structure by a 'v'. So consider the two verbal groups and their notation of the analysis as presented below:

has taken = $f \phi -$ (Finite, active, past in present)
 is being taken = $f v \phi \phi$ (Finite, passive, present in present)

Notice that item "taken" is not considered as expounding a "tense" in the second example as in the first one. This is because in all passive verbal groups the selection of the past-participial in the group-

final position is an exponent of passivity, and no contrastive tense selection is permissible. Thus "is being taken" and "is taking" have parallel tense selections, though the delicate contextualization of these selections varies from one to the other.

6. The system of polarity consists of two terms 'positive' and 'negative', the latter being regarded as the marked term. The selection of the marked term is symbolized by a 'p' immediately following element f or fm in finite verbal groups, and the initiating non-finite elements in non-finite groups. The exponent of negative polarity is the item 'n't' or 'not' following the first word of the finite and often preceding the first word of the non-finite verbal group. Thus consider:

'haven't (or have not) been doing' = f p ϕ - ϕ

'not to have been doing' = t⁻ p - ϕ

7. The system of polarity is applicable both to the simple and compound tense verbal groups, while for the system of contrastivity the presence of at least two words, though not necessarily that of two tenses is required. The terms in the system of contrastivity are (i) "emphatic" and (ii) "non-emphatic", the former is regarded as the marked term of the system, and is symbolized by the letter 'e' standing for emphatic.

7a. The exponent of the emphatic group is most clearly noticed in spoken language by the 'tonic'¹ carried by the first word of the group. This criterion is inapplicable to written texts. However with verbal groups which carry a simple tense and 'positive' polarity, the presence of the item "do" in the group initiating place may be treated as an

1. See M.A.K. Halliday: *Intonation System in English* (Patterns of Language, Longmans.)

exponent of the "emphatic". Thus consider 'do like, 'did like' as opposed to 'like' and 'liked' in the first place and 'don't like' and 'didn't like', in the other. In the latter case the presence of do/did is not regarded as an exponent of the "emphatic", as verbal groups with simple tense can expound the 'negative' only by the selection of do/did + n't/not. The groups would be analysed as follows:

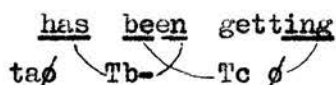
do like	= f e ϕ
did like	= f e -
like	= f ϕ
liked	= f -
don't like	= f p ϕ
didn't like	= f p -

In both the occurrences of the item "do" whether as the exponent of the 'negative', or the 'emphatic', the lexical item of the verbal group remains neutral as to the tense selection, and the first choice of tense is reflected in "do". In the analysed texts only the finite, simple tense, positive verbal groups were said to be capable of exercising the choices in the system of contrastivity, since the only other mode of indicating emphaticness in writing may be that of underlining the appropriate word of the group and this device was not made use of in the texts.

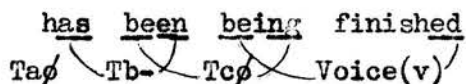
7b. The various systems of the verbal group "have" their exponents in various stretches of the verbal group. In order to state the structure of the verbal group lineally, we have selected the order in which the exponents normally occur. Thus the first choice is that of Finite/finite-modal/non-finite, the second of contrastivity, the third of polarity and the fourth of voice. Tense choices are the most complex and extend over more than one word. Below are presented examples of verbal groups with some marked selections:

- i) Couldn't have been being finished = fmpv ϕ - ϕ
 Verbal group = finite-modal, negative, passive, present
 in past in present.
- ii) Did finish = fe -
 Verbal group = emphatic, positive, active, simple past.
- iii) Not to have been being finished = t⁻pv - ϕ
 Verbal group = infinitival, negative, passive, present
 in past in present.

8. Although such "order" is postulated for the verbal groups, it may be noticed that most exponents of most systemic choices are not necessarily discrete items. Consider, for example, the system of tense where each secondary tense element starting from Tb has its exponent in 'half a word' exponent of the preceding tense element. To illustrate this we could present the analysis of a Verbal group as follows:



Not only are the secondary tense elements in partial "overlap" but also selections from the various other systems are expounded simultaneously by various items. Thus consider:



Here the last word in conjunction with part of a preceding word is the exponent of the marked term of voice, since it is not the case that the participial in the group-final position when preceded by a present tense always expounds passive voice. So compare:

has done	and	was done
Ta ϕ Tb-(voice=active)		Ta- (voice = passive)

The very first word of the verbal group may carry information about finiteness, contrastivity and polarity as well. Stretching the point one

may state the structure of the Verbal group as follows:

$$T ((F((P((C((V))))))$$

The formulaic representation would mean that within the exponent of the tense are included the exponents of finiteness, polarity, contrastivity and voice. However to this statement we must add another element: the "lexical verb", symbolized by L.

8a. A "lexical verb" is different from the "grammatical verb" in approximately the same way as a "lexical adverb" is different from a "grammatical adverb". In the examples: "has been getting" and "has been being finished", the lexical items "get" and "finish" have not been accounted for. We may treat these and such other items as exponents of the lexical element in the verbal groups. Both in the nominal and the adverbial groups, the question of recognizing a separate lexical element does not arise, since the exponents of each secondary elements of the structure of these groups are primarily lexical in nature¹. In the case of the verbal group except the element L, every other element is expounded by fully grammatical items, which can be further broken down to single item classes. An exhaustive statement regarding which of these single item classes may operate at any given element in a given case can be made by remaining entirely within grammar. Such is not the case either for the element L in the verbal groups or the elements of the structure of the nominal and adverbial groups.

8b. However like most exponents of the secondary elements of the verbal group structure, those of the element L represent "partial overlap of exponence" whether manifested by 'sequence' as in '-ing', '-ed' and '-en'

1. Some elements of the structure of these groups are expounded by classes consisting of more grammatical items than others. Thus in the nominal group the exponent of the elements d_a , d_b are highly grammatical, while those of h are not.

or by 'diffusion' as in 'bring/brought'. Normally this overlap is either with reference to the element v or a secondary tense element. If we move back left by half a word, purely for convenience in notation, we may then state that the lexical element is always the last in sequence in the verbal group. Thus in the formulaic representation of the structure of the verbal group¹, we may allow L to follow V. We may say that at the element L there is the choice of "lexical/non-lexical" since a verbal group may be lexical or non-lexical. This selection or non-selection of L presents a systemic contrast, the non-selection of the element L being specifically related to "cohesion"² between clauses where the absence of the lexical element, coupled with either the presence of the partial P³ or of a "substitute" makes a cataphoric⁴ reference to the previous clause, more specifically to a previous P and more delicately to the L of the group which is the exponent of the relevant P element. As an example, cohesion by partial P is presented below:

///"There's a great deal you don't want to hear....//
you never have."///

The second clause coheres cataphorically with the previous clause because of the absence of the lexical verbs "want(ed) to hear". Notice

1. See page 248 above.
2. "Cohesion" is the name for the relation that exists between various units of a text. All features of lexis or grammar that either point back to the previous or forward to the following items are covered under this category. For details see Section III Chapter V, p p. 362-364 below. Also see M.A.K. Halliday: *The Linguistic Study of Literary Texts* (Preprints of Papers for the Ninth International Congress of Linguists, Camb., Mass., 1962) and C.C. Bowley: *Cohesion and the Paragraph* (Diploma for General Linguistics, Edin., 1962).
3. See Chapter IID (Sec.II) 4c., page 167.
4. For 'cataphoric' see articles mentioned in footnote 2 above.

that although such cohesion may be established only with a previous clause, immediate contiguity of the cohering units is not obligatory. Thus the above item, when written out without any change, is as follows:

///"There's a great deal you don't want to hear".//
 Gerald cried // "you never have."///
 (A-S.A., p.317)

But inspite of the interruption by "Gerald cried" the cohesion relationship remains the same since it is not sequence but contextual "adequacy" that decides which units are being cohered. Thus we cannot say: "You never have cried" in the above instance, since contextually such "replacing" would be inadequate.

In the case of the non-lexical verbal groups, only those tense selections are indicated in the analysis as actually exist in the group under analysis, thus in "you never have" the relevant item is said to carry the simple present tense only. In the case of the selection of a substitute, the item "do" operates with the appropriate tense selection as the last word of the group.

8c. When a lexical verbal group is selected there is more delicately a choice between "phrasal/non-phrasal verb". Phrasal verbs are verbs which are invariably accompanied by a word of the class which normally expounds the elements a or p in the adverbial or the prepositional. Where such items form part of the phrasal verb, if the clause happens to be transitive, the element C of the clause structure may interpose between the verb and the phrasal element. So consider:

You've given me up ... (A-S.A., p.182)

Where "me", the exponenet of the element C is interposing between "give" (verb word) and "up" (the phrasal element). Since a non-phrasal

verb may be followed immediately by an element A expounded by the adverbial, there may possibly be cases of ambiguity, but these may be resolved by checking the mobility of the item. The exponent of the phrasal element may never precede the verb word.

9. A consideration of the feature of concord¹, provides us with a further systemic selection open to the verbal groups of a particular sub-class, namely the finite verbal groups with a selection of the "present" at Ta. This may be called the "system of number", with the terms "singular/plural" forming the terms of the system. The other sub-classes of the verbal group "opt out" of this systemic selection, although the high degree of consistency of concord might justifiably be used to consider those verbal groups as examples of "plural groups" which are in concord with a plural nominal group expounding the element S. However, if such a solution is adopted, then "concord" cannot be treated as a device for the identification² of the element S itself. Therefore in the present study, the system of number is considered specific only to the finite verbal groups with a "present tense" at Ta.

10. The distinction of 'single' and 'multiple' groups exponent of the same P element of clause structure is relevant here as in the case of other classes of groups.³ A multiple verbal group may be multiple in two ways, either by the selection of groups in "aspect" relation or of groups in "serial" relation. One multiple verbal group consists of more than one groups in either of these relations.

10a. Because of the mixed double minus-plus linking⁴ between clauses and because of the ability of the items "and" and "or" to link

1. For a discussion of "Concord" see Chapter IIB, 2c.iii p. 75 above.

2. Ibid.

3. See Chapter IIIA, 12-12d p. 216 and Chapter IIIB, 5-5a p. 236-237.

4. See Chapter IID, 3b p. 165 above.

at the sentence, clause and group ranks, we need criteria for distinguishing two language items which superficially look alike but present two separate structures. As an example consider the items below:

- i) ...can expunge or exorcize them (F.F., p.7)
- ii) (is) yawning and stubbing a lipsticked end of cigarette... (A-S.A., p.56)

In both cases a linking item occurs between two verbal groups, the second of which is a "partial group", but the syntactic description of the two items varies. It may be noticed that in the first case both verbal groups are "equally adequate" to the item at C; thus:

can $\begin{pmatrix} \text{expunge} \\ \text{exorcize} \end{pmatrix}$ them

This is not the case with the second example as there is no item such as *yawning a lipsticked end of cigarette. This distinction between the two is made a crucial criterion for regarding the first as an example of a multiple verbal group with two groups in serial relation, while the second is regarded as two single verbal groups each expounding a discrete P element in two discrete clauses.

10a.i No serial relation may exist between two verbal groups, if the preceding one is followed by a nominal group. Thus consider:

///He pretended to believe them all // and wove
himself nearer./// (F.F., p.49)

Therefore the beginning of a nominal group may be regarded as declaring the end of the preceding group, unless the nominal group is included within the phrasal verb, when the boundary of the verbal would coincide with the end of the phrasal element.

10a.ii This leads us into the consideration of those verbal groups which may follow each other uninterrupted, but the last of the series may have a complement, specific to itself as in the following item:

.....climbing, looping, spinning and threading the
high valleys over Kent.
(F.F., p.55)

Wherever in a series of groups there is such a verbal group, it is treated as the exponent of a discrete P element which begins a discrete clause.

10a.iii It follows from the above discussion of the "adequate" Predicate-Complement relation, that wherever there is a series of verbal groups such that the preceding ones have univalently intransitive verbs as the exponents of the element L, then those following group (s) which are transitive cannot be considered as standing in a serial relation to the intransitive. So consider:

///He knelt // and carefully brushed up the minutest
pieces of china...///
(A-S.A., p.

This rule would obviously be inapplicable to the clauses which are "intransitive", so that whether the exponents of L in successively following verbal groups are univalently intransitive or not would be irrelevant in such cases, as the two examples below illustrate:

I had bathed and drunk....
= one P element (exponent multiple group).
(F.F., p.5)

....the cistern filled automatically and discharged....
= one P element (exponent multiple group).
(F.F., p.51)

10a.iv Where one of the successively following verbal groups has its own specific C element, and where the preceding group has a multivalent

item at L which may be transitive or intransitive, we may come across ambiguities, as in the item below:

She washed and combed her hair.

The two interpretations are:

- i) She washed herself and then combed her hair.
- ii) Her hair was both washed and combed by her.

In the first case, the verbal groups do not stand in a serial relation, in the second they do. The interpretation itself is determined by the cotext.

10a.v The medial A elements are often observed to be included within the exponent of the verbal group. Where an unmarked¹ medial A element occurs either after a group (i.e. between two verbal groups) or occurs through inclusion, it does not affect the serial relation of the verbal groups in question. But a prepositional expounding an A element whether included or not, is treated like the nominal group as forbidding any serial relation between the verbal groups in question. This point may be illustrated by the following examples:

- i)can perhaps expunge or exorcize them.....
Kl-STR = ...P((A))C exponent of P = multiple gp.
- ii) ...the cistern filled automatically and discharged.....
Kl-STR = ...S P ((A)) exponent of P = multiple gp.
- iii) ///I was determined to be good, // to move on the highest level // to settle once for all the hauntings.///
Sc-STR = F &F &F (F.F., p.103)

Where "to move" may not be considered as in serial relation to the verbal group "to settle" for two reasons: because it is followed by a prepositional and because the complement to "to settle" may not be

1. See Chapter IIIB, 2b, p. 227 above.

adequate to the verb "to move". Therefore here each verbal group starts a new clause.

10a.vi Verbal groups occurring successively may not be considered to stand in serial relation even in the presence of a linking item if the selection of tense in the last secondary tense element is not the same. So consider:

....absorbed, gustily laughing and sighing.

(F.F., p.15)

The first underlined item above expounds a separate element P from the one expounded by the multiple group with serial relation. Further since words primarily exponent of the present- and past-participial are capable of expounding some secondary elements of the nominal group structure¹, when they occur in the setting of a series of nominal groups they are treated as the exponent of a relevant element of the nominal group. Therefore the underlined below are treated as exponents of nominal groups:

We were noisy, screaming, tearful, animal.

(F.F., p.17)

.....because forbidden and dangerous.....

(F.F., p.45)

When, however, such items are exponent of h elements in the nominal group a serial relation between the past- and the present-participial type of words may take place as in the following example:

He was violently searching and selfcondemned.

(F.F., p.5)

10a.vii No serial relation between the verbal groups separated by a dash (as opposed to enclosed within a dash) is recognized. Except for the feature of apposition, the occurrence of a dash in the present analysis

1. See Chapter IIIA, 6b. p. 197 above.

is treated as synchronizing with a clause-boundary. So the following item represents two clauses:

///The cistern filled automatically and discharged -//
 filled and discharged all day and night.///
 Sc-STR = F - &F

10a.viii The rules regarding multiple verbal groups with serial relation in them may be summed up as follows:

- i) All successive verbal groups without a following complement or prepositional stand in a serial relation.
- ii) Any verbal group with a complement specific to itself alone may not form part of the serial multiple verbal group.
- iii) All verbal groups in serial relation must select the same secondary tense element in the last tense selection.
- iv) A nominal group or a prepositional following a verbal group "separates" the preceding verbal group from any following ones, so that the two verbal groups on either side of such a nominal group or the prepositional cannot stand in serial relation.

10b. The aspectual multiple verbal groups are referred to as 'groups in aspect'. Groups in aspect may not be followed by a nominal group, except to indicate the end of the P element. Thus consider:

- i) ...she had to go out charring....
 K1-STR = SP P expounded by three groups in
 aspectual multiple relation. (F.F., p.55)
- ii) ///...she had her working bag // to go out charring...///
 Sc-STR = ..VB^x...
 F = S P C P = single verbal group
 B^x = P^x P = two groups in aspectual multiple relation.

However unlike the verbal groups in serial relation the exponent of

the element C does not have to be "adequate" to each single group, forming part of the aspectual multiple group. So we may have a clause such as the following:

I sat getting hungrier and hungrier.

K1-STR = S P C P 2 two groups in aspect.

(A-S.A., p.332)

But the complement "hungrier and hungrier" is adequate to the entire exponent of the P element and the clause may neither be rewritten as I sat hungrier and hungrier, nor as I getting hungrier and hungrier. Again as with the serial groups, this is irrelevant where intransitive clauses are concerned.

10b.i Not all successively occurring verbal groups may be considered as aspectual multiple group on the negative criterion of "not serial". The two respects in which they are certainly distinct from the serial multiple groups relate to the rule of the "adequacy" of the complement on the one hand and to the restricted structural choices open to the groups in aspect, on the other. Thus no groups in aspect relation, except the first in sequence has the free choice from the system of finiteness. While the first may be finite, finite-modal or non-finite, the others must all either be present-participial or infinitival, as the examples above demonstrate, A comparison of the items below will show, however, that this feature may not be considered as crucial only to groups in aspect:

- i) a. she went on speaking (F.F., p.55)
- b. She had to go out charring.
- ii) a. ...she said, giving the poinsettia a final survey.
- b. This he added, to annoy John.

(A-S.A., p.46)

It will be seen that superficially the two sets look alike but in the case of clauses under i) the "order" of the groups is fixed, and if one of the groups is "moved" the others will have to follow suit. The clauses in ii) are different in two ways, namely that the items "giving the poinsettia a final survey" and "to annoy John" being exponents of the conditioning clause¹ may change their place without any primary change in meaning and that both items "said" and "added" may be followed by their own complements, e.g. instead of "this he added" we may have "he added this".

Where successively following verbal groups not in serial relation, are capable of being interrupted thus, and where one of the groups along with other following relevant elements of clause structure is "mobile" as in the above cases under ii), the successively following groups may not be regarded as multiple aspectual groups. There may however be cases of genuine ambiguity² which can be resolved only by reference to the context. Further help in identification in written texts is provided by the convention of using a comma where groups are not multiple and by the fact that the kind of lexical items selected in aspectual groups (except the final one) are rather limited especially where the following group happens to be a participial non-finite one. A representative list of such items is presented below:

L at non-final groups in aspect:

go	{ out/on }	-: singing ³ (= go on singing)
come		
sit	{	-: thinking
stand		
lie		

-
1. See Chapter IIC 1 3b.iic., page 131 above
 2. See Chapter IIC 1, 3b.ia., page 125 above
 3. Items in the second column are not as restricted as in the first, and those presented here are merely examples. The symbol '-:' is used for showing the boundaries of groups in aspect.

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need      )
want      )  -:  decorating
require   )

contemplate)
help      )  -:  doing
consider  )

write     )  -:  praising
speak    )

get       )  -:  going
manage   )

```

10b.ii Multiple aspectual verbal groups may combine the selection of both kinds of non-finite groups, selected by turns in discrete groups.

Thus consider:

She had to go out charring
f - -: t⁻ (p) -: -ing

She kept hoping to do so
f- -: -ing -: t⁻

The participial when occurring at L and expounding the present tense within an infinitival group is not regarded as a discrete group. Thus

I do not wish to be reminding you
fp 0 - : t 0

10b.iii The rule regarding A elements occurring between verbal groups in aspect may not be stated as definitely as those for the serial. On the whole the notion of adequacy is used here much more freely than in the serial groups.

10b.iv Finally, multiple verbal groups may present a 'mixture' of aspect and serial relations, e.g. in

Perhaps I will want to go back and select
 $f + \quad - : \quad t^- \quad \& \quad -t$
 (F.F., p.7)

.....when I need to think and see
 $f \phi - : \quad t^- \quad \& \quad -t$
 (A-S.A., p.182)

10b.v This discussion ends the statements regarding grammatical descriptive categories employed in the analysis. The following section presents a comparison of the frequency of the various categories. Not all categories stated in these Chapters above have been compared in detail, yet the statement of all these is crucial for the reason that the demarcation of units is dependent upon the criteria presented her.

SECTION : III

CHAPTER I - Comparison.

1. As in description so also in comparison statements of variable delicacy can be made according to the aims of the study, but the delicacy of comparative statements is obviously dependent upon that of the descriptive categories, since it is only in terms of the latter that any statements in comparison may be made.

1a. Comparative statements¹ regarding any text analysed linguistically can be made on at least two axes, namely (i) intratextual and (ii) inter-textual². Both kinds of statements are valuable to the study of style. Intra-textual statements are statements with reference to patterns and their comparative 'density'³ within one particular text. The density of patterns may be examined in correlation to a register or to specific contextual features (e.g. participants). The significance of intratextual statements is that they provide an indication⁴ of the stylistic range of the author and the possible causes of variations in the density of certain patterns. For a reliable statement regarding an author's style in general, there is need to study his texts in a manner which may be described as 'intra-author inter-textual study', i.e. the comparative study of the various texts written by the same author⁵. This, incidentally, also provides the information

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1. That is, with specific reference to the stratum of linguistic execution. See Section I, Chapter I, especially page 16-18.
 2. The terms 'inter' and 'intra' are used here with the same general implications as in 'inter' and 'intra-level' in Chapter 2 of *Linguistic Sciences and Language teaching* by Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (to be published by Longmans, London).
 3. "density" is statistically determined in terms of the percentage of a pattern over the total of the patterns of the same rank within the same text.
 4. See Section I, Chapter I, p.14 (5a.)
 5. See Section I, Chapter I, p.14, 5a "For more specific statements about an author's style we logically need to concentrate upon each individual text by the author, from which can be abstracted those linguistic features which are common to all his texts..."

regarding any significant variations in the author's stylistic features in consistent correlation with the time dimension. Further in order to establish whether a variation in the density of certain patterns in the texts is correlatable to a variation in register¹ the study of two or more texts by two or more authors is needed. This study may be described as 'inter-author inter-textual study'.

1b. Inter-author inter-textual studies are important in two respects.

(i) They may reveal the potential or actual stylistic differences between two or more authors, by showing the contrast in the density of particular selected patterns. Where the aim of the study is to collect such information it may be desirable to keep the time dimension² and the genre as constant as possible, so as to ensure that the only largely variable factor correlates to the stylistic features alone. It is obvious that the larger the number of texts studied from each author, the more reliable the statements regarding stylistic contrasts will be.

(ii) While stylistic contrasts between two authors are important, the degree of likeness between the same two authors is again significant for the consideration of 'register' or 'genre' or 'etat de langue'. Where the time dimension of two authors varies, such points of similarity may either be related to the selection of the "same genre" or to the possible "influence" of one author upon the other. It is however conceivable that there may be genuine "similarity" of style between two authors which is not a by product of the selection of the same genre or of any demonstrable influence.

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1. For example a study of instructions for the installation of electrical equipments is likely to carry certain patterns more densely, irrespective of who the author is. (For some details of these features see Joan Maw: Some Interesting Features in written Instructions to Workmen, Dissertation for Diploma in General Linguistics, Edin., 1963).
 2. For 'time dimension' see Section I, Chapter I 8a. iv, p. 27 above. There is no implication that comparison across etat de langue is impracticable but it certainly has different implications from those of synchronic comparison.

2. The comparison of the texts made here is primarily of the inter-author inter-textual type, though there are certain comments which are specifically intra-textual. Since the aim was to compare the style of two authors, care was taken to keep the time dimension and the genre largely constant. Anglo-Saxon Attitudes and Free Fall were published in the years 1956 and 1959 respectively. Both belong to the genre of "prose fiction : novel". The central characters of both the novels are involved in a "flash-back" recollection of their pasts, with the consequence that events in the textual context do not follow each other in a straight sequential order in time. However, in one important respect the two texts are different: Free Fall is a story told by the central character (who refers to himself as "I") while Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is a story told by the "omniscient" novelist who as the story-teller is completely outside the textual context. This is to be regretted since certain variations in pattern selection may be a direct result of this feature.

3. The analysis of the corpus¹ was chain-exhaustive² so that each and every linguistic item was accounted for at the ranks of sentence, clause and group. For the notation of the analysis, an analysis card was designed, which would present the entire relevant information. A sample of the card together with the analysis of one item is presented below:

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1. The entire text as such were not analysed, but only a randomly selected sample was. See Section I, Chapter I, 10d., pp. 32-34 above.
 2. For this term see M.A.K. Halliday: Class in Relation to the Axes of Chain and Choice in Language, (Linguistics 2, Dec., 1963, Mouton & Co.)

Page : 165

Sc.No. : 7 Kls. No: 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21

Sc-STR: F B^xB^x &F B^xC^x

Kl-STR: A SPC

S : h

P : f ϕ - Z:

C : d_beh

A : a

d :

& : and = a

t :

Mood :	<u>Aff.</u>	Int.	Imp.	M'less
Sc-Function:	<u>Stmt.</u>	Qn.	Cmd.	Ans. Excl.
Dependence:	Cg.		Ag.	Rd.
Transitivity:	<u>C</u>		CC	
Presupposed-Presupposing :	16 <u>independent</u> linked.			

The sentence presented above was as follows; the clause which is analysed in the sentence above has been underlined:

///I have sat in the great drawing room at the rectory, // warming my hands at my Madonna // before going up to bed // and I have heard the slow tapping // as a picture beat against the brown panelling // though all the doors and windows were closed.///

(F.F., p.165)

3a. Sentences from the text were numbered orthographically; clauses and groups were delimited with reference to the criteria stated above¹ in Section II. The specific clause under analysis was underlined both under clause-number and clause-structure, as in the sample analysis presented above. Sentence- and clause-structures were stated under Sc-STR and Kl-STR, respectively, while the structure of the exponents of the elements of the clause structure were all stated under the relevant elements, S, P, C, A and Z.

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1. It is for this reason that a statement of the criteria employed for the recognition and delimitation of the exponents of the elements of sentence and clause-structure is a pre-requisite of the present study.

Below these, on the analysis card, is information regarding 'd' i.e. 'element marking the clause as the exponent of the dependent class', '&' i.e. 'element marking the clause as the exponent of the linked class', and 't' i.e. 'element marking the clause as the exponent of the thematic class'. Selections from the systems of mood, dependence and transitivity were underlined, as also that from sentence-function. Under "Presupposed-Presupposing" was presented the specific presupposition relation between clauses, indicated by their numbers.

3b. As a second step in processing the analysed data, all sentence-structures were abstracted from the cards to a separate sheet in order to have a clear picture of presupposition relation. Thus the sheet presented the sentence-structures as follows:

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Sc. No.

1. $F B^X \&F \&F B^X$
2. $\&F \&F B^X F$
3. $F' \xrightarrow{\quad} F \&F B^+ ((C^X D))$
4. $F \xleftarrow{\quad} F \&F' \&F'$
5. $F' \xrightarrow{\quad} F \xleftarrow{\quad} \&F'$
6. $B^X F \&F((B^X)) F' F' \dots$ and so on.

The superscript comma over F element is to indicate that it is part of "quoted speech"¹. Note that only F and &F' elements are indicated as quoted, since any dependent elements ultimately related to F' by presupposition are ipso facto a part of the "quoted speech". Where F' is accompanied by a 'quoting'² clause, this fact is indicated by an arrow which points to the quoting element.

Since some types primarily ascribed to the independent clause classes may at times expound a dependent element³, in order to differentiate between

1. See Section II, Chapter IIC-3; 4 pp. 155 above.

2. Ibid.

3. See the descriptions of the various multivalent types presented in Section II, Chapters IIB, IIC 1-3, and Chapters IID and IIE, above.

the two types of exponents of the dependent element, the superscript symbol is presented in red, e.g. B^a , B^x or B^+ , as opposed to B^a , B^x or B^+ .

4. As will be noticed from the details below, the selected corpus of Free Fall was slightly larger than that of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes but this does not invalidate comparative statements since the comparison is made in terms of the frequency of various categories. Frequencies are measured in two ways (i) overall, i.e. the percentile frequency of a particular pattern with respect to the total of the patterns at one particular rank and (ii) specific i.e. the percentile frequency of a particular pattern with respect to the total of patterns of a particular primary or secondary class e.g. that of the conditioning clause class over the total of either all presupposing or dependent presupposing classes.

4a. The comparison of a very general category may, at times, reveal very little or no contrast. Where this is the case it may be necessary to subdivide the general categories more delicately. Such subdivision does not imply that the resultant more delicate categories will necessarily display any contrast, but it ensures that if any contrast does exist it will be brought out, thus contributing to the validity of any conclusions we may draw from such comparison. This point may be made clear by a consideration of some of the tables in the following chapters.

4b. More delicate categories may be arrived at either by remaining within the same level, but making a move in delicacy, or by subdividing a particular category with reference to another level, without necessarily making a move in delicacy within the relevant levels - where subdivision of categories is made by reference to more than one level, this is referred

to as 'cross-classification'¹. Categories yielded by cross-classification are necessarily more delicate than the categories of equivalent delicacy drawn from one level at a time. It is obvious that such categories as are derived by cross-classification are not co-extensive with a "class" in grammar.

4b.i The basis of cross-classification may be said to be "likeness within and across likeness". Thus all independent clauses are like each other, as are also dependent ones, but among the independent some may be said to be more like each other than the rest e.g. some may be quoted speech, while others may not. Similarly the dependent clauses may be cross-classified as quoted-dependent and non-quoted-dependent. Further cross-classification may give us categories such as "quoted-dependent adding presupposing F/B and accompanied by a quoting clause".

4b.ii Obviously the usefulness of setting up any such categories can be assessed only pragmatically by the use that can be made of it in the description and comparison of a text and of texts in general. Such cross-classification is one mode of presenting the alignment of various selected patterns. In the following comparison cross-classification of categories has been made by reference to the axis of quoted-non-quoted, where the sentence rank is involved.

5. The comparison of the selections of various patterns is presented in the following chapters. Each chapter corresponds to a particular rank, Chapter II is concerned with the comparison of sentences

1. Although for an efficient analysis of language, it is necessary to postulate levels, the description of a language must go through the stage of cross-classification which may be considered as a synthesis of the various levels into a "language event". Firth recognized the need for this when he observed: "It is obvious that a theory of analysis dispersed at a series of levels must require synthesis at each level and congruence of levels". (A Synopsis of Linguistic Theory, 1930 - 1955, p.32).

and the elements of the sentence structure; Chapter III concentrates on the types of clauses, which were selected as the exponents of various classes as well as some of the selections of the elements of the clause structure while Chapter IV presents the selections encountered in non-rankshifted nominal groups expounding the elements S, C or Z of the clause structure. More detailed comparison of the data could be made but the cross-classification of categories of various ranks and of various degrees of delicacy requires much time. Besides it was felt that the amount of comparison presented here quite clearly demonstrates the nature of the information regarding style that a linguistic analysis of the type recommended is likely to provide. Further the comparison also demonstrates that by remaining entirely within and proceeding mainly from the level of grammar many valuable features of contrast and similarity between two texts may be revealed.

The last chapter of this section presents a brief interpretation of the compared selections, and indicates some modes of presenting the alignments of the selected patterns.

CHAPTER II : Comparison - the Sentence.

1. A total of 125 and 73 pages was analysed from Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes respectively. The total of sentences yielded for the two and their general details are presented below:

Table 1.

Type of Scs.	F.F.	A-S.A.
Simple Sentences	1416	898
Compound Sentences	1372	1415
Total of Scs.	2788	2313

1a. The number of clauses found in the simple sentences is logically identical with the number of the simple sentences themselves. In the compound¹ sentences the number of clauses was 3860 and 3998 for Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes respectively. The total of clauses² in the two samples is as shown below:

Table 2.

Clauses	F.F.	A-S.A.
Kls in S Scs.	1416	898
Kls in Comp Scs.	3860	3998
Grand Total of Kls	5276	4896

2. We shall first deal with the clauses entering in the structure of the simple sentences. The criteria for sentence delimitation being orthographic we have certain simple sentences consisting of a presupposing

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1. "Compound sentence" for the purposes of this section stands for sentences which are compound by reference to orthographic criteria as opposed to the grammatical criteria suggested in Section II Chapters I and IB above.
 2. More specifically "non-rankshifted clauses". Wherever "clause" is used in this section it should be read as "a clause entering in the structure of the sentence" unless otherwise stated.

element alone, their exponents being &F or B. These and other clauses are cross-classified with reference to the axis of quoted-non-quoted.

Table 3.

Kls in S scs.	F.F.	A-S.A.
F	756	308
F'	497	472
&F	119	25
&F'	30	71
B	10	12
B'	4	10
Total	1416	898

2a. As is clear, contrasts between the two texts are marked with reference to the selection of &F and the quoted clauses. These contrasts may be shown separately. Here in order to bring out the distinction (Table 4) between the presupposing and the non-presupposing clauses expounding a simple orthographic sentence the distinction of quoted-nonquoted has been ignored.

Table 4.

Kls in S Scs	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual ¹	% G. Totl.	% Tot.	Actual	% G.Tot.	% Tot.
F	1253	23.7	88.4	780	15.9	86.8
&F	149	2.8	10.5	96	1.9	10.6
B	14	.2	.9	22	.4	2.4
Total	1416	26.7	*99.8	898	18.2	*99.8

1. "Actual" refers to "actual number of occurrences" while "G.Tot." stands for "grand total" (see Table 2 above). Where "Tot." is used it is to be interpreted as "total in the first column" unless otherwise indicated. Thus under F.F. 88.4% means 88.4% of 1416 (Tot.) clauses were exponents of F. Note the stars against 99.8% in both third columns. In some instances the combined percentages do not add up to 100% although in fact the total sample covered by the table in question is accounted for. This is a "rounding error" due to the fact that all percentages have been rounded to one place of decimal (or two places where one place would be non-distinctive). Such "false" tables are accompanied by an asterisk as in the total of the third columns relating to both the texts.

Table 5a.

Q-Kls ¹ in S Scs	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G. Tot.	% S Sc-Kls ²	Actual	% G. Tot.	% S Sc-Kls
F'	497	9.4	35.0	472	9.6	52.5
&F'	30	.5	2.1	71	1.4	7.8
B'	4	.07	.2	10	.2	1.1
Total	531	9.9	37.3	553	11.2	61.4

Table 5b.

Non-Q-Kls in S scs	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G. Tot.	% S Sc-Kls	Actual	% G. Tot.	% S Sc-Kls
F	756	14.3	53.4	308	6.2	34.3
&F	119	2.2	8.4	25	.5	2.8
B	10	.1	.7	12	.2	1.3
Total	885	16.6	62.5	345	6.9	38.4

2b. Notice the higher percentage of the simple sentence clauses in Free Fall, as is made clear by the Table 4 above. This factor is significant if we also compare the grand total of clauses in the two texts (see table 3 above). Within the simple sentence clauses the frequency of the selection of various secondary clauses seems to be similar, with some difference

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1. "Q-Kls" stands for "quoted clauses as "Non-Q-Kls" (See table 5b above) for "non-quoted clauses". No distinction is made at this stage between the non-quoted and the quoting. This is mainly because no simple non-quoted sentences may act as a quoting clause, as the quoting and the quoted clauses are normally observed to occur within the same orthographic sentences.
 2. "S Sc-Kls" stands for "clauses in simple sentences" and refers to the total of clauses exponent of simple sentence structures. Later we shall use "C Sc-Kls" to stand for clauses exponent of the elements of the structure of compound sentences. (See table 7 below.)

displayed where the element B is concerned. Thus in table 4 the selection of independent clauses in the two texts is 88.4% and 86.8% of the total of simple sentence clauses in Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes respectively. However if tables 5a and 5b are considered it becomes apparent that a cross-classification of F and &F on the axis of quoted-nonquoted brings out a very major contrast. The relevant figures may be reorganized in a separate table to bring out the very sharp contrast in the selection of quoted and non-quoted clauses in the two texts. Both the total from table 4 and the cross-classifications from tables 5a and 5b are presented, the totals being underlined:

Table 6.

Q-K1 v. Non-Q-K1.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% S Sc-K1s	Actual	% S Sc-K1s
F	756	53.4	308	34.3
F'	497	35.0	472	52.5
<u>F: total</u>	<u>1253</u>	<u>88.4</u>	<u>780</u>	<u>86.8</u>
&F	119	8.4	25	2.8
&F'	30	2.1	71	7.8
<u>&F: total</u>	<u>149</u>	<u>10.5</u>	<u>96</u>	<u>10.6</u>

There appears to be a complete "reversal" of patterns here. While Free Fall has 53.4% of non-quoted simple sentence clauses, Anglo-Saxon Attitudes has 52.5% of quoted simple sentence clauses and so on, for each of the categories. Thus a delicate subdivision of general categories has brought out a significant contrast¹. Although the contrast as presented by the table above relates only to the simple sentence clauses, it provides us with a basis for postulating that the contrasts along the axis of

1. See Chapter I 4a of this section, above.

quoted v. nonquoted may be a feature of interest for the entire texts.

3. Since the sentence is delimited with reference to orthographic criteria, the number of clauses in compound sentences is not necessarily the number of clauses in presupposition relation. Thus, for example, an orthographic sentence may consist of two F elements without any presupposition relation¹. The notion of 'sentence complexity' relates, however, only to the complexity of grammatical relations between the elements of sentence structure. For this reason, all these compound sentence clauses will be subdivided into three categories:

- i) Primary presupposed clauses expounding the element F.
- ii) Presupposing clauses whether linked or dependent.
- iii) Clauses outside presupposition relation-expounding logically the non-presupposed F elements in sentences.

These categories are very general and will be subdivided or cross-classified as the discussion proceeds.

3a. The average proportion of clauses per compound sentence in the two texts was 2.8 both for Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. These figures relate to the total of the compound sentence clauses; the picture regarding the proportion of the presupposing to the primary presupposed is different and is discussed later².

The clauses outside presupposition relationship may be further subdivided by an indirect reference to presupposition. Some of the unpresupposed F elements occur in sentences which have other clauses standing

1. This is not to say that they are "irrelevant" to each other - it only implies that whatever relation exists between such clauses has not been handled under the category of "presupposition" in grammar.

2. See 3c, p. 277 below.

in presupposed-presupposing relationship, while in others there may be no presupposition relationship at all. An example of compound sentences with these features is presented below:

- i) //He pulled the joystick back slowly, //
 a huge hand thrust him up // and he rolled
 off the top of the loop // while the
 irrelevant dark earth reeled sideways as
 easy as a shadow.///
 Sc-STR = F F&F B^x (F.F., p.55)

- ii) //I was not quite the fantasist that Evie
 was; // my stories were excess of life,
 not compensation.///
 Sc-STR = F F (F.F., p.49)

In example i) above the first F is considered irrelevant to presupposition relation which holds F&F B^x together. Such unpresupposed clauses that occur in sentences with presupposition relation but are themselves irrelevant to this complex are labelled here as "irrelevant F".¹ In the second example two F elements constitute the sentence but do not stand in any recognized presupposition relation. Such unpresupposed clauses are called "F constituting compound sentence".² To distinguish the primary presupposed F element, it is referred to as F-presupposed.³ All these categories are further cross-classified with reference to quoted-nonquoted and the feature of "inclusion".

3b. Tables 7 and 8 below present an account of the F-presupposed and F unpresupposed. Table 8 is further divided into 8a and 8b; 8a presents figures relating to F constituting compound sentence, 8b those relating to irrelevant F.

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1. Again "irrelevant" is to be interpreted as "irrelevant to presupposition". The abbreviation used in the tables for this term is 'F irr'.
 2. The abbreviation used in the tables for the term is 'F C-Sc', as opposed to 'F in C-Scs' which stands for all clauses expounding F in compound sentences, whether presupposed or not, or 'C-Sc Kls' which stands for all clauses in compound sentences.
 3. Recursively presupposed elements eg. B and C in FB₁CD, and &F₂ in F &F₁ &F₂ &F₃ are discussed later. See tables 18 and 21 below.

Table 7.

F-presupposed Kls	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	%G.Tot.	% C-Sc Kls	Actual	% G.Totl.	% C-Sc Kls
$\begin{matrix} F \\ ((F)) \end{matrix}^1$	$\begin{matrix} 897 \\ 16 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 17.3$	23.7	$\begin{matrix} 468 \\ 26 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 10.0$	12.3
$\begin{matrix} F' \\ ((F')) \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 152 \\ 2 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 2.9$	3.9	$\begin{matrix} 444 \\ 8 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 9.3$	11.3
Total	1067	20.2	27.6	946	19.3	23.6

Table 8a.

F C-Sc	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G.Tot.	% C-Sc Kls	Actual	% G.Tot.	% C-Sc Kls
$\begin{matrix} F \\ ((F)) \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 177 \\ 2 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 3.3$	4.6	$\begin{matrix} 276 \\ 16 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 6.0$	7.3
$\begin{matrix} F' \\ ((F')) \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 187 \\ 5 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 3.6$	5.0	$\begin{matrix} 594 \\ 8 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 12.2$	15.0
Total	371	6.9	9.6	894	18.2	22.3

Table 8b.

F irr	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G.Tot.	% C-Sc Kls	Actual	% G.Tot.	% C-Sc Kls
$\begin{matrix} F \\ ((F)) \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 97 \\ 3 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 1.9$	2.6	$\begin{matrix} 148 \\ 10 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 3.2$	4.0
$\begin{matrix} F' \\ ((F')) \end{matrix}$	$\begin{matrix} 47 \\ 2 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} .9$	1.2	$\begin{matrix} 259 \\ 12 \end{matrix}$	$\left. \begin{matrix} \\ \end{matrix} \right\} 5.5$	6.7
Total	149	2.8	3.8	429	8.7	10.7

The over-all picture of the occurrences of F elements in compound sentences can be summed up as below:

1. The percentage was found for quoted-nonquoted, without individually working out the relations of "quoted included" and "nonquoted included". That is why braces cover the two relevant figures in each case.

Table 9.

F in C-Scs	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% C-Sc Kls	% F in C-Scs	Actual	% C-Sc Kls	% F in C-Scs
F-unpre ¹ (FC-Sc	371	9.6	23.4	894	22.3	39.4
(F irr	149	3.8	9.4	429	10.7	18.9
F-pre ²	1067	27.6	67.2	946	23.6	41.7
Total:						
F in C-Scs	1587	41.0	100.0	2269	56.6	100.0

The last four tables again point to two areas of contrast (i) in table 9 the contrast in the selection of the presupposed and unpresupposed F elements, and (ii) in tables 7, 8a and 8b the selection of quoted-nonquoted clauses. The information from these three tables is summed up in the following tables to bring out the contrast of quoted-nonquoted selection in the two texts.

Table 10a.

Nonquoted F in C-Scs	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in C-Sc Kls	Actual	% in C-Sc Kls
F-presupposed	<u>213</u>	<u>23.7</u>	<u>494</u>	<u>12.3</u>
F C-Sc	179	4.6	292	7.3
F irr.	100	2.6	158	4.0
Total of nonquoted F	1192	31.9	944	23.6

Table 10b.

Quoted F in C-Scs	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in C-Sc Kls	Actual	% in C-Sc Kls
F-presupposed	<u>154</u>	<u>3.9</u>	<u>452</u>	<u>11.3</u>
F' C-Sc	192	5.0	602	15.0
F' irr.	49	1.2	271	6.7
Total of quoted F	395	10.1	1325	33.0

1. F. unpre = F-unpresupposed.

2. F-pre = F-presupposed.

Figures relating to the presupposed clauses quoted or nonquoted have been underlined in the tables to indicate the remarkable contrast.

3c. The total of the clauses of all classes in the compound sentences was 3860 (F.F.) and 3998 (A-S.A.). Of these 1587 (F.F.) and 2269 (A-S.A.) are exponents of F elements¹, the total of presupposing clauses in the analysed texts is therefore 2273 (F.F.) and 1729 (A-S.A.). If the number of the presupposing clauses is added to the F-presupposed ones², it will represent the total of the clauses in the two texts which relate to any consideration of grammatical complexity at this rank.³ This total is 3340 (F.F.) and 2675 (A-S.A.) and the ratio of the presupposing clauses to one primary presupposed clause is 2.1 (F.F.) and 1.8 (A-S.A.).

3d. The presupposing clauses can be subdivided into the secondary dependent and linked clause classes. The table below accounts for these classes:

-
1. See table 7, 8a, and 8b above. The picture may be presented as follows:

Total of clauses in compound sentences:	3860 (F.F.)	3998 (A-S.A.)
" " F-pre in " "	: 1067 (F.F.)	946 (A-S.A.)
" " F-unpre in " "	: 520 (F.F.)	1323 (A-S.A.)
∴ " " presupposing clauses	: 2273 (F.F.)	1729 (A-S.A.)

2. For the details of F-presupposed clauses in the compound sentences see table 7. The total of the clauses entering into presupposition relationship is as follows:

F-pre. in C-Scs.	1067 (F.F.)	946 (A-S.A.)
Presupposing in C-Scs.	2273 (F.F.)	1729 (A-S.A.)
Kls in gr. C-Scs.	3340 (F.F.)	2675 (A-S.A.)

3. As opposed to the grammatical compound sentences, there were 161 (F.F.) and 361 (A-S.A.) compound sentences consisting of only F elements.

Table 11.

Presupposing Kls in C-Scs	F. F.	A - S. A.
Cg Kls	705	526
Ag Kls	54	31
Rd Kls	381	514
<hr/>		
linked to Cg	94	22
linked to Ag	14	6
linked to Rd	75	28
<hr/>		
linked F + \underline{F}^1	745+41	282+23
linked F' + \underline{F}'	12+6	177+15
linked F Sc-ini. ²	140	29
linked F' Sc-ini.	6	76
Total of presupsng ³ Kls	2273	1729

The table indicates the following sets of totals.

- (i) Dependent clauses.
- (ii) Dependent linked clauses.
- (iii) Independent linked clauses.
- (iv) Clauses with a place on the scale of depth.⁴
- (v) All linked clauses (i.e. (i) and (iii))
- (vi) All presupposing clauses (i.e. (i), (ii), and (iii))

-
1. $\&F$ stands for those linked clauses which "include" the exponent of a B element within them. Thus the second clause in the constructed example below would be an instance of $\&F$: ///It was late // and ((when we arrived)) they had already gone to bed///.
(= F $\&F((B^x))$).
 2. F Sc-ini. = Linked to independent, and sentence-initial.
 3. Presupsng. = presupposing.
 4. i.e. all clauses which are either dependent or through being linked to a dependent acquire a place on the scale of depth.

Four tables are presented below to account for (i) B-Conditioning and clauses linked to B-Conditioning (ii) B-Additioning and clauses linked to B-Additioning (iii) B-reported and clauses linked to B-reported and (iv) &F linked to F. These tables are designed to present greater details regarding these sets of clauses, thus both the place on the scale of depth and the feature of inclusion are indicated, in addition to showing the number of dependent clauses which are expounded by unmarked types. This is done by showing the symbol for dependence in red colour, where the exponent is of the unmarked type.

Table 12.

Conditioning Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
B^x	570	377
$((B^x))$	27	62
$\&B^x$	23	10
$\&B^x \&^1$	3 x 2	1 x 2
B^x	7	4
$((\&B^x))$	3	-
B^x	3	1
$\&B^x$	47	8
$((\&B^x))$	3	-
C^x	70	60
$((C^x))$	12	13
C^x	5	2
$\&C^x$	6	1
$\&C^x$	5	1
$((\&C^x))$	1	-
D^x	7	4
$((D^x))$	4	2
B^x	-	1
Total	799	548

1. The symbol & & indicates Kls in mutual linking.

Table 13.

Additioning Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
B^+	41	26
$((B^+))$	1	2
B^+	2	1
$\&B^+$	8	5
$\&B^+$	1	-
$\&B^+$	4	1
C^+	10	1
$((C^+))$	-	1
$\&C^+$	1	-
Total	68	37

Table 14.

Rd Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
B"	180	215
((B"))	-	1
[B"]	2	5
&B"	3	1
&B"	1	-
&B"&	1 x 2	-
B"	149	226
((B))	1	1
B'	1	-
&B'	58	20
((&B'))	1	-
&B' &	1 x 2	3 x 2
C"	34	43
((C"))	-	2
C"	1	1
&C"	1	-
&C"&	1 x 2	-
C"	6	8
&C''	3	-
D"	3	10
((D"))	-	1
&D"	1	-
D'	3	1
((D'))	1	-
&D''	-	1
((&D'))	1	-
Total	456	542

Table 15.

Linked Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
&F	729	279
((&F))	4	3
&F	2	-
<u>F</u>	41	23
&F Sc-ini.	140	29
&F'	12	177
&F' Sc-ini.	6	76
<u>F'</u>	6	15
&F&	5 x 2	-
Total	950	602

Special areas of contrast are to be found in the reported and the linked clauses. The dependent clauses have not been divided along the axis of quoted non-quoted. This will be done in a following discussion, with specific reference to quoted-speech in the two texts. In the linked clauses where the subdivision of categories into quoted, non-quoted has been made, again the contrast between the two texts will be noticed. The table below gives a picture of the actual occurrences of these presupposing clauses in compound sentences and their percentile frequency in (i) the total corpus (ii) the total of compound sentence clauses and (iii) the total of presupposing clauses.

Table 16.

Pre- suppsng Kls.	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	Actual	% G.Tot.	% in C-Sc Kls.	% in pre- supsg	Actual	% G.Tot.	% in C-Sc Kls.	% in pre- supsg
Cg Kls.	799	15.1	20.7	35.1	548	11.2	13.7	31.7
Ag Kls.	68	1.3	1.7	3.0	37	.8	1.0	2.1
Rd Kls.	456	8.6	11.8	20.0	542	11.0	13.5	31.3
&F Kls.	926	17.6	24.0	40.7	334	6.8	8.3	19.3
&F' Kls.	24	0.4	0.6	1.0	268	5.5	6.7	15.5
Total	2273	43.0	58.8	*99.8	1729	35.3	43.2	*99.9

Points to be noted in particular from the above tables are a relatively predominant selection of one particular class of presupposing clause as opposed to the others within the same texts and the intertextual comparison of the tendencies of selection from among the presupposing clauses. Thus in Free Fall, linking presupposition¹ is most frequently selected, while the selection of the linked, the conditioning and the reported is almost uniformly made in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Both texts display little tendency to select the adding clauses, though Free Fall has a considerably higher percentage of these. Notice also the difference between the frequencies of &F and &F' in the two texts: the equal selection of the two categories in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is in agreement with other such selections².

4. The above tables present all the elements of the structure of the sentence, as selected in the texts under observation. While some contrasts have been noticed, the various selections by themselves, indicative

1. This remark is made with specific reference to the independent linked clauses, but also see tables 12, 13 and 14 above.

2. See the comparison of F and F' clauses in the simple and compound sentences in the two texts (Tables 7, 10a and 10b above)

though they may be are not to be taken as a statement of 'sentence complexity' in full detail. Features envisaged as relevant to the consideration of such complexity may be stated briefly as follows:

- i) Depth in dependence, as in general the greater the 'recursiveness' of the structure the more complex the sentence may be.
- ii) Succession in linking, for the same reason as above.
- iii) The presupposing of the same element by more than one presupposing elements e.g. F in the structure \overrightarrow{BFB} or $\overrightarrow{BF\&F}$ or B in $\overrightarrow{FB\&BC}$ etc.

The above considerations are purely grammatical. There are other features which may contribute to sentence complexity - one such feature is the actual manifestation of "sequence". It is envisaged that "inclusion" may contribute to the complexity of a pattern at this rank.

The present analysis, because of delimiting sentences orthographically, has resulted in adding two other features contributing to sentence complexity. These are as follows:

(i) One orthographic sentence may contain within itself more than one primary presupposed element e.g. in a structure such as \overrightarrow{BFBFBC} , where two F elements are presupposed by two separate sub-complexes. On purely grammatical criteria recommended here¹ the above structure would be regarded as two individual compound sentences, with the structures \overrightarrow{BFB} and \overrightarrow{FBC} .

(ii) An orthographic sentence may contain within itself a presupposing element the presupposed element of which is either entirely absent, or present in the previous sentence. All sentence-initial independent linked clauses are of the latter type, though sometimes the presupposed clause may

1. See Section II Chapters I and IB above.

be found at a greater distance. In one example in Free Fall an independent linked sentence-initial clause was linked to a clause at a distance of eight simple sentences. In other cases, dependent presupposing clauses have been observed¹ to constitute an entire sentence, without the presence of a presupposed element.

All these features² are abstractions from the sentence patterns encountered in the texts, and those found in general in English. For the purposes of analysis each such feature can be enumerated and described separately, but in any actual language event there may be sentences combining any set or all of these features. Thus, for instance, we may have a sentence where there are more than one F elements, where one or more of them are presupposed once or more than once, where the dependent elements may be recursive and may either be interrupted or accompanied by successive linking, with or without the feature of inclusion. So the patterns into which these features may combine will run into hundreds, and perhaps thousands if the analysis is made more delicate. For the purposes of this comparison, recursive dependence and successive linking are discussed in some detail.

4a. The element B is relevant to any discussion of recursive dependence, but the actual number of the elements B, C or D is not to be confused with the number of the elements that they presuppose since not only may more than one of these elements presuppose one appropriate element (e.g. BB presupposing one F and CC presupposing one B element), but also they may more delicately presuppose a linked element (e.g. B presupposing &F or C presupposing &B). The dependent linked clauses are somewhat

1. See table 24 below.

2. There is no implication that these are the only features contributing to the complexity of the sentence. See the last chapter of this section for details regarding complexity.

unambiguous in this respect, since a &B must presuppose a B as a &C must, a C. Below is presented a table with dependent clauses of various depths, and the appropriate dependent linked clauses.

Table 17.

Kls on depth scale	Actual	% Tot. prespsng.	% Tot. on depth	Actual	% Tot. prespsng.	% Tot. on depth
B	984	43.3	74.4	921	53.3	81.7
&B	162	7.1	12.2	53	3.0	4.7
C	138	6.0	10.4	131	} 7.7	11.8
&C	19	.8	1.4	2		
D	18	} .9	1.5	18	} 1.1	1.7
&D	2			1		
E	-	-	-	1	-	-
Total on depth scale	1323	58.1	* 99.9	1127	65.1	* 99.9

The prominent areas of contrast in the above table are (i) intra-textually that between the selection of the dependent (not linked) and the dependent linked (ii) the contrast between the selection of places on depth scale (notice especially the contrast between C and D within the two texts) and (iii) intertextually the contrast between the selection of dependent linked in the two texts. This last category is more frequent in Free Fall than in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. This is consistent with the tendency in the selection of the independent linked clauses in simple and compound sentences in the two texts, (see Tables 6 and 16 above). Notice also that the actual frequency of linking after the place B on the depth scale is almost negligible in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes - indeed so negligible that a percentile frequency of these would be 'zero' up to one decimal place.

The table below shows the actual incidence of these depths with reference to each particular class of the dependent clause.

Table 18.

Place on depth scale	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	Cg	Ag	Rd	Total	Cg	Ag	Rd	Total
B	607	44	33	= 984	444	29	448	= 921
&B	82	13	67	= 162	20	6	27	= 53
C	87	10	41	= 138	75	2	54	= 131
&C	12	1	6	= 19	2	-	-	= 2
D	11	-	7	= 18	6	-	12	= 18
&D	-	-	2	= 2	-	-	1	= 1
E	-	-	-	= 0	1	-	-	= 1
Total	799	68	456	=1323	548	37	542	=1127

More delicate distinctions among these categories made with reference to sequence and exponence type have been ignored here.

4b. The second main grammatical feature capable of contributing to the complexity of a sentence is the selection of successive linking as opposed to single linking. Of course the same sentence may have both single and successive linking within itself. This can happen in a grammatical sentence only if there is a dependent clause within the sentence. In an orthographic sentence, however, there are two possibilities (a) there may be two primary presupposed clauses, one presupposed by a single linked clause, the other by a series of successively linked clauses, and (b) there may be a single sentence-initial &F followed by an F which may then have its own set of single or successive linking clauses. Where the sentence is orthographically delimited we have the added complication of having these features combine with the grammatical complexity of the alternate selection

of B and &F elements in the same sentence.

In this respect the analysed texts present vast problems since there are precisely the above kinds of complications. Following are some of the categories of &F that have been abstracted from the texts.

- I. i) &F operating within simple sentences
- II. ii) &F sentence-initial in compound sentences
- iii) &F " " in successive linking (eg. in &F&F&F)
- iv) &F " " presupposed by B
- v) &F single-linking with a primary presupposed as in the structure F&F.
- vi) &F successively linked with a primary presupposed as in the structure F&F&F&F...
- vii) &F successively linked in sentences with B elements in them
- viii) &F presupposed by an included B element, the structure noted as &BF; (this type of &F is shown as F in table 15 above.)

All these categories may be subdivided with reference to quoted nonquoted.

4b.i These categories do not account for:

a) initial &F followed by an F. According to the grammatical criteria such a succession of elements would be regarded as belonging to two discrete sentences, but orthography recognizes this as one compound sentence. Hence the F in such sentences is treated as F irrelevant¹.

b) alternate linking where we may have a structure such as FB&FB&F.... or F&FF&FF&F... The first is grammatically one sentence with one primary presupposed F, while the second consists of as many grammatical sentences as there are primary F elements. The structures are presented in the most

1. For "F irrelevant" see the discussion under 3a above, (pp. 273-274)

general terms, since the number of elements occurring between two &F elements may be more than one.

4c. The combinations of &F in the compound sentences are discussed first. The occurrence of &F sentence-initial was 146 (F.F.) and 105 (A-S.A.)¹. Two tables are presented below to account for &F sentence-initial in certain particular patterns and in some general patterns.

Table 19.

Type of Sentence	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no. of Scs.	no. of &F eles.	no. of Scs.	no. of &F eles.
&F&F	25	50	17	34
&F&F&F	6	18	3	9
&F B... ²	93	93	40	40
Totals:	124	161	60	83

The number of sentences above logically indicates the number of sentence-initial &F elements. The remaining 22 (F.F.) and 45 (A-S.A.) &F sentence-initial are accounted for in the general patterns below:

Table 20.

Ge. types of Scs.	F. F.	A - S. A.
&F&F....B... ³	8	2
&FF..... ⁴	4	33
&FFB/&F..... ⁵	10	10
Total of Scs.	22	45

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1. See Table 15 above (p.282).
 2. The dots after B indicate that there may be other presupposing elements in the sentence.
 3. The dots after &F imply that the number is not limited to two &F elements, those after B show that there may be other presupposing elements following B.
 4. Dots show that there may be any number of F elements in the sentence.
 5. Dots show that there may be any number of presupposing elements.

4c.i Table 19 above incidentally provides some information regarding successively linked clauses, but since these tables are primarily concerned with the consideration of the sentence-initial &F elements they do not account for all occurrences of the successively linked clauses. These may be divided into three general sentence-types:

- i) Sentences with successively linked clauses but without a primary presupposed F e.g. structures &F&F or &F&F&F... These are the ones that have been incidentally brought to notice by table 19 above.
- ii) Sentences with successively linked clauses preceded by a primary presupposed F element but with no sub-complexes, e.g. in F&F&F...
- iii) Sentences with or without a primary presupposed F element, where the last term of the successively linked clauses is presupposed by a dependent clause. If there is a primary presupposed F element then such a string of successively linked clauses may either be both preceded and followed by sub-complexes or be just preceded or followed.

These three types are further broken down according to the number of &F elements in each sentence. The table below accounts for all instances of successive linked &F elements in the two texts:

Table 2.

Types of successive linking	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no.of Scs	no.of &F eles.	no.of Scs	no.of &F eles.
i) &F &F.	25	50	17	34
&F &F &F.	6	18	3	9
ii) F &F &F.	35	70	18	36
F &F &F &F.	5	15	-	-
F &F &F &F &F.	2	8	-	-
iii) ...&F &F ...	39	78	19	38
...&F &F &F ...	3	9	1	3
...&F &F &F &F ...	1	4	-	-
...&F &F &F &F &F ...	1	5	-	-
...&F &F &F &F &F &F ...	1	7	-	-
Totals	118	264	58	120

4c.ii A general account of some types of single linking is also presented in the table below, but neither alternate linking nor linking interrupted by a dependent element are accounted for. While it is clear that successive linking in sentences has a "value" different from that of single linking as shown by the types below, cases of alternate linking, in fact, present a much more complex pattern, since the combination of alternate linking and dependence is a doubly recursive structure¹ with distinct layers of relations between the elements and the sets of elements.

1. It is considered doubly recursive if there are &F elements in the sentence because an &F is "recursive" with reference to the primary presupposed F and other &F elements preceding it, while the subcomplexes to each of these F and &F elements constitute another set of "recursive" structure.

Table 22a.

Types of Single linking	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in presupsng	% in &F	Actual	% in presupsng	% in &F
&FB	93	4.1	9.8	40	2.3	6.6
&BF ¹	47	2.1	4.9	38	2.2	6.3
&FF...	4	0.1	0.4	33	2.0	5.5
&FFB/&F...	10	0.5	1.1	10	0.5	1.7
F&F.	251	11.0	26.4	122	7.0	20.2
Total single linked &F	405	17.8	42.6	243	14.0	40.3

Thus the total of &F elements that has been accounted for may be summed up as follows:

Table 22b.

&F clauses	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in presupsng	% in &F	Actual	% in presupsng	% in &F
&F in single linking }	405	17.8	42.6	243	14.0	40.3
&F in success -ive linking }	264	11.6	27.8	120	6.9	19.9
Total	669	29.4	70.4	363	20.9	60.2

The number of &F elements in alternate linking is 281 (F.F.) and 239 (A-S.A.)

4c.iii To sum up this comparison of the selection of linked clauses in the two texts, a table is presented below to show the frequency of (1) &F

1. i.e. B is included in &F. Thus element is shown as F in table 15 above.

in simple sentences (ii) &F in compound sentences and (iii) &B¹ in compound sentences.

Table 23.

Linked Kls.	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G. Tot.	% in presupnsng	Actual	% G. Tot.	% in presupnsng
&F S Sc	149	2.8	6.6	96	2.0	5.6
&F C Sc	950	18.0	41.8	602	12.3	34.8
&B	183	3.5	8.0	56	1.1	3.2
Total of Linked Kls.	1282	24.3	56.4	754	15.4	43.6

Two points may be made here regarding the frequency of the linked clauses in the two texts, namely (i) as compared to Anglo-Saxon Attitudes the selection of the linked clauses of all three general categories is higher in Free Fall and (ii) intratextually linking is the most frequently selected presupposing element in Free Fall while in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes this statement may not be made in these terms. There is a higher selection of dependent clauses in the latter, though the selection of linking is higher than that of a particular secondary class of dependence².

4d. The number of the sentences with more than one set of presupposition relations³ is 52 (F.F.) and 58 (A-S.A.). These sentences were not classified any further, though any such subclassification may prove interesting for the study of sentence complexity. Apart from these sentences we may have sentences in which the presupposing dependent clauses may not "have" a primary presupposed F element at all. There are in all

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1. &B stands for &C &Dn. For details of these see tables 17 and 18 above.
 2. See tables 11, 16 and 17 above.
 3. That is sentences with two primary presupposed F elements.

40 (F.F.) and 52 (A-S.A.) such sentences, but of these 14 (F.F.) and 22 (A-S.A.) are simple sentences. The remaining 26 (F.F.) and 30 (A-S.A.) compound sentences consist of 80 and 74 clauses respectively. Generally these clauses belong to the reported class and their exponents are in the majority of cases the multivalent affirmative types, but other classes are also selected. Thus Free Fall selects all three classes of the dependent clause, while Anglo-Saxon Attitudes does not select the additioning at all. However as will be seen from the table below, which presents details of the frequency of such clauses, the selection of conditioning clauses in the two texts is nearly the same, but there is quite a considerable contrast in the selection of places on the scale of depth.

Table 24.

B Kls in F-less Scs	F. F.	A - S. A.
Cg: B ^x	3	8
B ^x	1	1
C ^x	11	7
Rd: B''	-	1
B''	56	51
C''	2	5
C''	-	1
D''	2	-
D''	3	-
Ag: B ⁺	1	-
C ⁺	1	-
Total	80	74

4e. The last feature to be discussed here in connection with sentence complexity is that of "inclusion". It is envisaged to be relevant

to sentence complexity since an included clause interrupts the simple linear progression as a manifestation of structure, thus leading to a certain amount of "delay"¹ before the actual pattern of the structure emerges. The total of included items is as shown below:

Table 25.

Included Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
((F))	30	79
((B))	102	123
((&F))	4	3
[F]	-	1
[B]	28	18
[&F]	2	-
Total	166	224

The percentage frequency of these in the compound sentence clauses is 7.3 (F.F.) and 13.0 (A-S.A.). This is clearly a marked contrast.

5. Reference has been made to the axis of quoted-nonquoted, especially whenever F or &F elements have been discussed. The marked contrasts in this area suggest further enquiry. The contrast as will be seen from the following discussion is not merely that of the comparative frequency of quoted-nonquoted, but of selections of various categories within these two selections.

5a. Of the total of 2788 (F.F.) and 2313 (A-S.A.) sentences, 804 and 1511 respectively carry quoted speech in the two texts. Within sentences which carry quoted speech, are also observed to occur quoting

1. "Delay" as a term may be defined within the framework of the descriptive model employed here. This may be done by reference to normal sentence patterns and presupposition expectancies.

clauses, though it is by no means necessary for the quoted clauses to be accompanied by these; in other words the presence of the quoting is not demanded by the quoted as that of the reporting is by the reported. In sentences where there are quoting clauses we may have a further source of sentence complexity since two kinds of intra-sentence relations may exist: that of quoting-quoted and that of presupposed-presupposing if either the quoted or the quoting enter in any presupposition relation. It is also possible for the quoted F and the quoting F both to enter in their discrete presupposition relations simultaneously, but no sub- or co-complexes specific to quoted F are relevant directly to the quoting F elements, and vice versa.

Below are discussed some of the details of quoted speech with reference both to the simple and compound sentences.

5b. The table below presents the picture regarding the quoted clauses in simple sentences:

Table 26.

Q-Kls S Scs	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in S Sc Kls	Actual	% in S Sc Kls
F'	497	35.0	472	52.5
&F'	30	2.1	71	7.8
B'	4	.2	10	1.1
Total	531	37.3	553	61.4

The contrast in the selection of &F' in the two texts is noticeable specially in view of the findings regarding the selection of linking¹.

However this tendency of comparatively higher selection of linked clauses

1. See tables 19, 20, 21, 22a, 22b, and 23 above.

in quoted speech may also be noticed in the consideration of compound sentences in the texts, as a study of the table below will show. In addition to &F' the table also accounts for the selection of presupposed F' and presupposing quoted clauses.

Table 27a.

Q-Kls in presupposition	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% C-Sc Kls	Actual	% C-Sc Kls
F'-presupposed	154	14.4	452	47.8
B'	154	11.6	441	38.7
&F'	18	2.2	192	38.6
&F' Sc-initial	6	4.1	76	72.4
Total ¹	332	9.9	1161	43.4

For easy reference a table below presents an account of parallel categories of the nonquoted clauses.

Table 27b.

Non q Kls in presupposition	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% C-Sc Kls	Actual	% C-Sc Kls
F-presupposed	913	85.5	494	52.2
B	1169	88.3	686	61.3
&F	786	97.7	305	61.4
&F Sc-initial	140	95.9	29	27.6
Total	3008	90.9	1514	56.6

The marked contrast in the selection of presupposing clauses as shown in table 27a and b should be compared with the general tendency as shown by

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1. Both in 27a and 27b the percentile frequency of the quoted and nonquoted clauses in presupposition has been worked out with reference to all clauses entering in presupposition relation in the respective texts.

table 16 above. The ratio of presupposing clauses to one presupposed F clause in quoted speech is 1.1 (F.F.) and 1.6 (A-S.A.) as opposed to the ratio of 2.1 (F.F.) and 1.8 (A-S.A.) for all (quoted and nonquoted) clauses in presupposition. It appears justifiable to postulate that while in general Free Fall may be said to have greater complexity by presupposition, Anglo-Saxon Attitudes selects more complex presupposition relations in quoted speech than does Free Fall. As an indication, the following tables are presented to show the actual frequency of each class of dependent clause, as well as the selection of particular places on the scale of depth.

Table 27c.

Places on depth scale	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	Cg	Ag	Rd	Total	Cg	Ag	Rd	Total
B	57	2	73	= 132	105	4	256	= 365
&B	6	-	3	= 9	9	1	8	= 18
C	8	-	4	= 12	28	1	18	= 47
&C	-	-	-	= -	-	-	2	= 2
D	1	-	-	= 1	4	-	5	= 9
Totals	72	2	80	= 154	146	6	289	= 441

The percentile frequency of clauses at each place on the scale of depth has been worked out with reference to the total of clauses at each such place both in quoted speech (in col. 2 below) and in the entire text, (in col. 3 below). The three classes of dependent clause classes are taken together for each place on the scale of depth.

Table 27d.

Places on depth scale	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in Q-Kls	% in both	Actual	% in Q-Kls	% in both
B	132	85.7	74.4	365	82.8	81.7
&B	9	5.8	12.2	18	4.1	4.7
C	12	7.8	10.4	47	10.6	} 11.8
&C	-	-	1.4	2	.4	
D	1	.6	1.5	9	2.0	1.7
Totals	154	99.9	99.9	441	99.9	99.9

The table demonstrates that the average selection of places on depth scale for the quoted in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is more or less similar to the overall selection of these in the text. (Compare columns 2 quoted depth and 3 nonquoted depth). For Free Fall there are significant differences - the selection of B is higher in both texts but, here, in contrast, other categories have 12.4% (F.F.) and 17.1% (A-S.A.) frequency among the presupposing. The difference in itself may not appear to be very great in statistical terms, but the finding agrees with the earlier findings regarding the complexity of sentence pattern in quoted speech in the two texts and is therefore significant.

5c. There are four other points to be made regarding quoted speech

- (i) the proportion of quoted speech with a quoting F to that without,
- (ii) the number of quoted speech sentences with double quoting in them,
- (iii) the number of &F quoting an F' or an F quoting an &F' - both such that their presupposed clauses are interrupted by other F clauses, e.g. in the structure F'F'&F or &F'F, and lastly (iv) the number of F' unpresupposed.

5d.i The question of quoting F naturally arises only in the compound

sentences. Here the quoting clauses may be quoted by ϕ , one or more than one quoting F clauses. All quoting clauses themselves, are, ipso facto, non-quoted, and belong to the class of clause members of which act as reporting clauses in the reporting-reported presupposition. In the two texts there were no sentences with more than two quoting F in them - the majority of sentences with quoting had single quoting. The table below shows the arrangement of these in the texts.

Table 28.

Sentences in quoted speech	F. F.	A - S. A.
Total of sentences with q-speech	273	958
" " " without qg F	260	608
∴ The no. of qg F is:	15	456
∴ " " " Scs with double qg is:	2 (= 4)	106 (=212) ¹
∴ " " " " " single qg " :	11 (=11)	244 (=244)

Of these quoting clauses some enter in presuppositions while others do not. The table below shows the kind of selection in this respect:

Table 28b.

qg F Kls.	F. F.	A - S. A.
qg + unpresupposed	12	371
qg + in presupposition	3	85
Total of qg Kls	15	456

5c.ii All the quoting clauses entering in presupposition in Free Fall constituted the presupposing term, while those in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes had a wider range. The details are shown below:

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1. Figures in the brackets here refer to the number of quoting clauses involved. These add up to the total in each case.

Table 28c.

qg. in presupposition	F. F.	A - S. A.
Kl. qg. presupposed ¹	-	50
Kl. qg linked	2	32
Kl. qg dependent	1	3
Total	3	85

The table above, incidentally shows one kind of a-normal linking in speech with quoting: these instances of linked qg are of the type &F F' or ...F' &F ... (All instances of the dependent clause quoting are B^x clauses). A-normal linking in quoting speech occurs 3 times in Free Fall and 22 times in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. This kind of linking represented by a structure such as &F' F ... is considered a-normal only if the sentence preceding it is not quoted or, being quoted, had no F' element which could be presupposed.

5c.iii Not all quoted F were accompanied by a quoting clause. Naturally, all simple sentence quoted F clauses are without a quoting clause - but these are not being considered here, since the absence of quoting is not contrasted here with the possible presence of quoting, as in the compound sentences. Within the compound sentences the number of F quoted accompanied by quoting or otherwise was as below:

Table 29.

F' in Compound sentences	F. F.	A - S. A.
F accompanied by qg	21	641
F not accompanied by qg	374	684
Total F' in C-Scs.	395	1325

1. i.e. quoting and presupposed, both simultaneously.

The contrasts, here, are so clear, they require no comment. The complicated correlations of F accompanied with *qg* + presupposed/non presupposed/presupposing were not worked out but whether the thus quoted F itself was in a presupposition relation was studied, the number being 6 (F.F.) and 117 (A-S.A.).

5c.iv Since the number of total quoted F in the compound sentences and that of quoted presupposed F is now available, the number of quoted F unpresupposed in compound sentences can be easily deduced. The table below shows the actual occurrences.

Table 30.

F' in Compound Scs.	F. F.	A - S. A.
Total F quoted	395	1325
∴ F quoted presupposed	<u>154</u>	<u>452</u>
∴ F quoted unpresupposed	241	873
Total F quoted in C-Sc	395	1325

6. In the course of this entire discussion there have been repeated comments on the significant differences in the selection of patterns intratextually with reference to the quoted-nonquoted categories. This difference almost amounts to a reversal of the overall tendencies. The table presented below states each general category divided along the axis of quoted-nonquoted and states what percentage of the category goes to these two different sections. This table would be more profitably studied in conjunction with all the other tables in this chapter, i.e. a comparison of each category here, with the subcategories and other combinations of these presented earlier.

Table 31.

Gen. Cats.	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	Quoted Speech		Non quoted speech		Quoted Speech		Non quoted speech	
	Actual	% of gen. Cat.	Actual	% of gen. Cat.	Actual	% of gen. Cat.	Actual	% of gen. Cat.
F Simple	497	39.7	756	60.3	472	60.5	308	39.5
F presupsd.	154	14.4	913	85.6	452	47.8	494	52.2
F unpre.	241	46.3	279	53.7	873	66.0	450	34.0
&F Simple	30	20.1	119	79.9	71	74.0	25	26.0
&F in C-Sc	18	2.2	786	97.8	192	38.6	305	61.4
&F Sc-initial	6	4.1	140	95.9	76	72.4	29	27.6
B S-Sc	4	28.6	10	71.4	10	45.5	12	54.5
B C-Sc	154	11.6	1169	88.4	436	38.7	691	61.3
Total	1104	20.9	4192	79.1	2582	52.7	2314	47.3

The contrasts are consistent intratextually: a higher selection of non-quoted in Free Fall as opposed to the higher selection, in general, of quoted in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. But within this general tendency, attention is particularly drawn to the percentage of presupposing clauses in both these sections and the relative percentage of quoted and non-quoted presupposed in the two texts.

6a. It will be noticed that the table does not state the quoting clauses separately. A study of tables 28b and c will indicate the reason for this omission. The quoting clause is not a particular category but a category in combination with others and any separate statement of such 'combined' categories would have complicated the table unnecessarily. However in order to show what proportion of the text was involved in quoted speech and quoting clauses a separate table is presented below. It should be pointed out here that the status of the quoting clause itself is slightly

ambiguous. It may not be regarded as quoted speech, but it is part of the clauses involved in quoted language. On the other hand, for this very reason it is not clearly separable from the quoted or the non-quoted parts of the text. The relation of the quoting clause to the clauses that it quotes are felt to be important and therefore the table below is in fact three tables one superimposed on the other, to display the ambiguous nature of the quoting clauses.

Table 32.

Kls. in the Corpus	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in corpus	Actual	% in corpus
quoted Kls (total)	1104	20.9	2582	52.7
qg Kls (total)	15	0.3	456	9.3
Kls. quoted or qg	1119	21.2	3038	62.0
Kls. neither quoted nor qg.	<u>4157</u>	78.8	<u>1858</u>	38.0
Grand Total	5276	100.0	4896	100.0

Attention is drawn to the contrast between the percentage of quoting clauses in the two texts. Figures underlined in green are those for clauses non quoted, figures within blue frame are with reference to quoting and quoted clauses while those in red show the selection of clauses quoting or quoted as opposed to those neither quoted nor quoting.

CHAPTER III - Comparison - the Clause.

1. The last chapter was concerned with a comparison of selections at sentence rank within the two texts. In this chapter are discussed some of the selections made at the clause rank. Some of these selections are best dealt with with reference to the types exponent of certain classes of clauses, others will be treated with reference to secondary classes alone.

2. Below are presented tables with respect to the exponent types selected for each class within the two texts. For the purposes of discussion in this chapter clauses are not necessarily divided into simple and compound sentence clauses. They are referred to in general by the secondary class of clause to which they belong. Nor is the axis of quoted non-quoted used for further re-classification of any of the categories. This is not to deny the usefulness of such classification, which would certainly lead to greater particularity in comparison.

2a. Tables 1a, 1b and 1c below present the selection of the types exponent of B^{x1} . The element that particularly marks the type as the exponent of B^x or B^+ and so on carries the appropriate superscript as in the description of types in the earlier chapters in Section II. Table 1a presents the conditioning clauses, the type being divided into the three general heads P-finite, P-nonfinite and without P. Types with P-finite make no reference to the element P or S: only those elements relevant to the exponent types of a dependent clause class are shown. Types with P-non-finite are further distinguished with reference to the subclass of P-nonfinite and to whether they are accompanied by an S element or not.

1. B here subsumes B, C and D This is yet another relevant axis along which clauses might have been subdivided for the selection of types expounding each place on the scale of depth.

Table 1a.

Types exponent of B ^x	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in total Cg	Actual	% in total Cg
I A ^x	478	59.5	359	64.3
C ^x	1	.1	1	.2
IIa -S P ^x ing...	130	16.2	93	16.7
-S P ^x -n....	24	3.0	13	2.3
-S P ^x t ⁻	28	3.5	38	6.8
IIb +S P ^x ing...	22	2.7	14	2.5
+S P ^x -n....	5	.6	-	-
+S P ^x t ⁻	1	.1	7	1.2
III A ^x . ¹	3	.4	-	-
A ^x A.	2	.2	1	.2
A ^x Z.	1	.1	4	.7
A ^x Z Z...	1	.1	-	-
Z Z ^x .	10	1.2	5	.9
Total	706	87.7	535	95.8

The table shows a similarity in the frequency of different types, though the total selection varies slightly - the areas mainly responsible for this variation being I and II. Table 1b below deals with the marked exponents of the dependent linked clause². Members of these types are considered marked because they are restricted to expound only a dependent linked class of clause³. Some of these are entirely univalent with reference to the dependent (conditioning) linked clause class. Both the linking and the conditioning elements are separately marked.

1. This A^x is distinct from the one in I above as this A is the exponent of a simple moodless clause which is conditioning e.g. in "Because. Because -" (F.F.)

2. That is: "linked to the dependent" (in this case "conditioning").

3. See Section II Chapter IID Linked Clause Class.

Table 1b.

Dependent linked Cg.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in total Cg	Actual	% in total Cg
A ^{&} A ^x	19	2.3	6	1.1
A ^{&} -S P ^x -ing	12	1.5	7	1.2
A ^{&} -S P ^x -n	8	1.0	-	-
&B ^x total	39	4.8	13	2.3

Below follows a table of the clauses linked to a conditioning clause, the exponents of which belong to an unmarked type, and acquire their status entirely from the presupposed clause.

Table 1c.

Cg linked Kls.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in total Cg	Actual	% in total Cg
A ^{&}	12	1.2	6	1.1
A ^{&} -S	25	3.1	1	.2
-S	8	1.0	2	.4
A ^{&} -S pP ¹	10	1.2	-	-
	55	6.8	9	1.7

There are 3 B^x and 1 B^x in Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, which are expounded by clauses primarily ascribed to the type exponent of the independent class. With the addition of this final category, the three tables cover the entire occurrence of conditioning clauses in the two texts.

2b. A similar account of the exponents of the adding clauses is presented below. Of the dependent clauses the adding is the most

1. "pP" stands for "partial P". See Section II, Chapter IID.

restricted clause class, not only in the places it can occupy relative to its presupposed, but also the type of clauses that are capable of expounding it.

Table 2a.

Types exponent of B ⁺	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in Ag.	Actual	% in Ag.
S ⁺	27	39.7	19	51.3
C ⁺	10	14.7	6	16.2
A ⁺	17	25.0	6	16.2
Total	54	79.4	31	83.7

Compare this table with Table 1a; repeated is the feature of largest proportion coming from these directly dependent clauses, but here there is greater contrast in the frequency of particular pattern selections; especially the contrast between S- and A- additioning clauses is considerable.

Table 2b.

dept linked Ag	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in Ag.	Actual	% in Ag.
A & S ⁺	3	4.4	2	5.4
A & C ⁺	4	5.9	-	-
A & A ⁺	2	2.9	3	8.1
Total	9	13.2	5	13.5

Table 2b presents the dependent linked clauses which have a marked exponent (parallel to the types presented in 1b above). The number of unmarked clauses expounding the linked clauses presupposing the additioning is rather small, but to maintain the parallel is presented a table below to account for these types.

Table 2c.

Ag-linked Kls.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in Ag	Actual	% in Ag
A ^{&}	2	2.9	1	2.7
-S ^{&}	3	4.4	-	-
Total	5	7.3	1	2.7

2c. With the reported clauses there is a general distinction to make between reported clauses whose exponents are types marked to expound non-independent clauses only and those whose exponents belong to the multivalent affirmative type in total there are 466 and 554 reported clauses in the corpus (see Tables 11 and 16 in Chapter II of this Section.) To this total are added reported clauses from the simple sentences as well. These are 10 and 12 respectively. The details regarding these are presented in the table below. Where the reported is shown in red (= ") the symbol implies that the exponent belongs to the multivalent type.

Table 3.

Red Kls.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% in Rd total	Actual	% in Rd total
B"	221	47.4	278	50.2
&B"	9	1.9	1	.2
B''	170	36.5	248	44.8
&B''	66	14.2	27	4.8
Total	466	100.0	554	100.0

Further details regarding the exponents of B" and &B" are presented first. Of the other exponent types, there is no need to state the exponents of B'' since they are, by the very fact of being exponents of B'',

members of the type primarily assigned to the affirmative clause class. The &B' on the other hand is accounted for along with the exponents of independent linked clauses, since they both share the common range of types as their exponents.

Table 4a.

Exponents of B"	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% of Rd total	Actual	% of Rd total
A"	178	38.2	236	42.6
C"	29	6.2	37	6.7
S"	12	2.6	4	.7
A" Pt ⁻	2	.4	1	.2
Total	221	47.4	278	50.2

The picture is again very homogeneous, apart from some contrasts between S" and A".

Table 4b.

Rd-linked Kls.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% of Rd total	Actual	% of Rd total
A ^{&} A"	5	1.1	1	.2
A ^{&} C"	1	.2	-	-
A ^{&} S"	1	.2	-	-
A ^{&} Pt ⁻ "	2	.4	-	-
	9	1.9	1	.2

2d. A similar study is made below of the selection of the types which expound the independent linked and &B". So far the percentile frequency of the selection of types in the two texts has been remarkably

homogenous. The selections of types expounding the unmarked linked clauses show greater contrasts. The table below accounts for a total of 1165 and 725 linked clauses, all belonging to the unmarked type which may expound any class of linked clause depending on the term it presupposes. The total consists of the independent linked clauses in simple sentences, the independent linked clauses in the compound sentences and the exponents of &B which as pointed out earlier belong to the same unmarked general type, which may expound the independent linked clauses. The percentile frequency of each subcategory in the table is worked out with reference to this total.

Table 5.

Unmarked linked type	Actual	% Tot. of &-type	Actual	% Tot. of &-type
A ^{&}	667	57.3	563	77.7
A ^{&} A ^{&}	47	4.0	30	4.1
A ^{&} , -S	211	18.1	89	12.3
-S ^{&}	115	9.9	11	1.5
-S, -C ^{&}	1	0.1	-	-
-S, pP ^{&}	32	2.7	2	0.3
A ^{&} , -P	12	1.0	6	0.9
A ^{&} , -S, pP	70	6.0	19	2.6
A ^{&} , -S -P	7	0.6	-	-
-P ^{&}	2	0.2	1	0.1
-S, -P ^{&}	-	-	1	0.1
O ^{&} _c , O ^{&} _c	1	0.1	3	0.4
Total	1165	100.0	725	100.0

Except for the figures relating to "double plus linking"¹ by A elements, none of the selections in the table show close homogeneity. If we look back

1. For a detailed discussion of the types of clauses expounding the linked class see Section II, Chapter IID above.

at the earlier tables of this chapter, and compare the selections of various types it will be noticed that the above table presents an exaggerated picture of a rather regular feature of selection in the texts: this feature relates to a consistently higher selection of A^d - or $A^{\&}$ - types as the exponents of dependent or linked clauses in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. This feature of the selection is examined in some detail below.

3. The types with one or more grammatical A element in them may be subdivided first on this very basis; thus:

I A - type

II AA - type

In both the cases the element A is not identified as $A^{\&}$ or A^d ; when this factor is taken into consideration the above types may be further subclassified as:

I i) $A^{\&}$ -type

ii) A^d -type

II i) $A^{\&}A^{\&}$ -type

ii) $A^{\&}A^d$ -type

The types with single A-linking (I i) above) may combine with minus-linking, in which case they are completely unmarked, or they may combine with another type of dependent clause which does not belong to the A^d -type. Of the unmarked linked type, a subdivision may be made on the basis of whether the unmarked type in any given instance has presupposed a dependent or an independent clause. Thus it may be further broken down as follows:

I i) $A^{\&}$ -type

ia) $A^{\&}$ -S/P/C (unmarked)

ib) $A^{\&}$ -S/P/C (presuppose dependent)

ic) $A^{\&}$ + $S^d/P^d/C^d$ type (marked dependent linked)

So that the total of sub-categories of A-types accounted for in the table below is:

I Single A-types.

- i) $A^{\&}$ -type (Single plus linking)
- ia) $A^{\&} -S/P/C$ (double mixed linking)
- ib) $A^{\&} -S/P/C$ (" " ")
- ic) $A^{\&} +S^d/P^d/D^d$ (single plus linking marked)
- ii) A^d -type ($A^x.../A^+.../A''$)

II Double A-types.

- i) $A^{\&}A^{\&}$ -type (double plus linking)
- ii) $A^{\&}A^d$ -type (single plus linking marked)

3a. All these types have been discussed in detail in earlier chapters in Section II above. In the table below, each of the subcategories is entered under the serial number as detailed above. The underlined figures in the last three columns for both texts are (i) the grand total (ii) the total of marked presupposing types, and (iii) the total of all types of presupposing classes (unmarked or marked) respectively. The percentile frequencies of each subcategory are worked out with reference to these totals.

Table 6.

A-type Kls	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	Actual	% G.Tot.	% marked pspsng	% pspsng Kls	Actual	% G.Tot.	% marked pspsng	% pspsng Kls
		<u>5276</u>	<u>2263</u>	<u>2436</u>		<u>4896</u>	<u>1598</u>	<u>1847</u>
I i) A ^{&} -type	667	12.6	29.5	27.3	563	11.5	35.2	30.5
ia) A ^{&} -S/P/C	300	5.7	13.2	12.3	114	2.3	7.1	6.2
ib) A ^{&} -S/P/C	45	0.8	2.0	2.0	8	0.2	0.5	0.4
ic) A ^{&} +S ^d /P ^d /C ^d	38	0.7	1.7	1.5	19	0.4	1.2	1.0
ii) A ^d -type	682	13.0	30.1	28.0	607	12.4	38.0	32.9
II i) A ^{&} A ^{&} -type	47	0.9	2.1	2.0	30	0.6	1.9	1.6
ii) A ^{&} A ^d -type	26	0.5	1.1	1.0	10	0.2	0.6	0.5
Total A-type Kls	1805	34.2	79.7	74.1	1351	27.6	84.5	73.1

This table presents a complex set of contrasts. The overall selection of A-type clauses within the entire corpus is slightly heavier for Free Fall than it is for Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. But the categories of single plus linking (i) above) and of A^d-type are more often selected in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than in Free Fall. The single A[&]- or A^d-types are the "simplest" ones as opposed to the double mixed linking, or the marked dependent linking (as in ic) and II ii) above). The latter are in general more heavily selected in Free Fall.

4. The "absence" of the element S in clauses may be discussed under three general categories (i) where the type is single minus linked (ii) where the type is double mixed linked, and one of the features of double linking is the absence of the element S, and (iii) types in which the element S is absent while another element of the structure of the clause marks it as an exponent of a dependent clause. The table below presents details of all these three categories of -S types.

Table 7.

-S type Kls	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% pspng types	Actual	% pspng types
i) -S single linked	126	5.6	13	0.8
ii) -S double linked	376	16.6	119	7.4
iii) -S dependent	182	8.0	144	9.0
Total	684	30.2	276	17.2

It is worth pointing out here that the only area of similarity of selection in the above table (i.e. the category iii) refers to those -S type of clauses where the types in free variation are very limited, as opposed to the types in linking which have a large number of freely varying types¹, and the substitution of one type by another does not correspond to a primary change in the contextual meaning of the item. Where such "free choice" is present (i.e. in i) and ii) above) the selection of -S types in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is noticeably lower than that in Free Fall.

5. The general secondary clause classes from the systems of transitivity, theme and aspect were also studied. From the system of transitivity only the selections of single and double C elements are accounted for.

5a. The picture emerging from the study of the transitive clauses does not show any outstanding contrasts in selection. There are a total of 2532 and 2285 transitive clauses in Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes respectively. Of these 107 (F.F.) and 121 (A-S.A.) are double transitive

1. Thus consider: "To go to the station you must take a no. 1 bus," and "John works very hard and is also quite intelligent". While there appears to be a somewhat greater freedom of substituting the underlined in the second by "and he is also....etc", there is hardly any free substitute with the element S in it to the first underlined, such that the contextual meaning of the clause will not be primarily changed.

clauses. The percentile frequency of these in the entire corpus and of single and double transitivity, within the entire transitive clauses is shown in the table below.

Table 8.

Transitive Kls.	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% G.Total	% in Tr. Kls.	Actual	% G.Total	% in Tr. Kls.
Single Transitive	2425	46.0	95.8	2164	44.2	94.7
Double "	107	2.0	4.2	121	2.5	5.3
Total	2532	48.0	100.0	2285	46.7	100.0

It may be noted that individual contrasts of such an order as exists here between the respective frequency of the double transitive clauses within the entire transitive clauses have been pointed out elsewhere (see table 6, for example) as being significant. Here we cannot point out this contrast with reference either to the entire corpus or to the transitive clauses themselves as particularly significant, because the category does not form part of a general pattern of selection, there being no other points of reference.

5b. There were a total of 380 (F.F.) and 298 (A-S.A.) thematic clauses. These form 7.2% (F.F.) and 6.1% (A-S.A.) of the entire clauses in the respective texts. The details of the distribution of these in A^t , C^t and Z^t are given in the table below. Under double theme are also stated those thematic clauses which had more than two thematic A elements in them. The table also states the percentile frequency of each particular subclass of thematic clause within all thematic clauses. The numbers involved are very small, and the spread of the various subclasses over the corpus is

stated only in terms of 3 generalised categories (i) C and Z-thematic (ii) single A-thematic and (iii) Double A-thematic.

Table 9.

Thematic Kls.	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in Th-Kls.	% in Corpus	Actual	% in Th-Kls.	% in Corpus
C-thematic	18	4.7	0.4	30	10.0	0.7
Z-thematic	3	0.8		2	.7	
A-thematic	328	86.3	6.2	250	83.9	5.1
Double A-thematic	29	7.6	0.6	16	5.4	0.3
AAA-thematic	2	0.6		-	-	
	380	100.0	7.2	298	100.0	6.1

The only points to make note of appear to be the higher frequency of the C-thematic clauses in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, and that of the double A-thematic in Free Fall.

5c. There is a very small number of aspect clauses in the text, the total for Free Fall being 94 and that for Anglo-Saxon Attitudes 82. Of the latter there is only one instance of an aspect clause with more than two F elements in it. (There were 3 P elements in this particular clause.) The percentile frequency of these over the entire corpus is 1.2 and 1.7 for Free Fall and Anglo-Saxon Attitudes respectively.

6. Above (in 4) the tables have shown the contrast between the selection of clauses marked as the type exponent of the presupposing classes by the absence of the element S. The combination of various elements open to selection in clauses has greater restrictions with reference to the elements S, P, C and the positive Z. The element A is the 'freest' of the elements of clause structure and probably offers greater latitude for

contrastive selections than the others. A study of the selection of A elements in the two texts (at clause rank) was made. The results are presented below: we have excluded the grammatical A elements from consideration here since the nature of grammatical A elements is obviously different from the lexical and mobile A elements.

6a. The two general categories of A elements¹ recognized here are (i) Medial² and (ii) final, the final being more frequent than the medial ones. The medial are subdivided into two classes again (i) first medial: an A element occurring between the elements S and P and (ii) second medial: an A element occurring between the elements P and C. The distinction of "medial" and "final" does not apply to moodless clauses for obvious reasons, therefore a third category of A elements is set up: those which occur in the moodless clauses. In stating medial elements, reference has to be made to the relevant elements (other than A) of the clause structure, but in stating the final and the A in the moodless clauses, no such statements are made; only the distinction between the number of A elements in succession is made. There are combinations of (a) first and second medial and of (b) medial and final. The tables regarding medial A elements will present (a) the medial (b) 1st and 2nd medials in combination and (c) medial and final in combination.

1. For the purpose of discussion in para. 6 and sub paras of 6 the term "A element" means A elements which are not grammatical or thematic.

2. See Section II Chapter III B: Adverbial Groups.

Table 10.

First medial A elements	F. F.				A - S. A.			
	No.of Kls	1st Med. A	2nd Med. A	Final A	No.of Kls	1st Med. A	2nd Med. A	Final A
S A P... ¹	41	41	-	-	58	58	-	-
S A A P..	1	2	-	-	7	14	-	-
S((A)) P..	4	4	-	-	2	2	-	-
S A P A	14	14	-	14	32	32	-	32
S A A P A	1	2	-	1	1	2	-	1
S((A))P A A	1	1	-	2	1	1	-	2
S A P A A	4	4	-	8	7	7	-	14
S A P A A A	1	1	-	3	1	1	-	3
S A P A C	2	2	2	-	2	2	2	-
Total	69	71	2	23	111	119	2	52

Table 11.

2nd Medial A	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	No of Kls	2nd med.A	final A	No of Kls	2nd med.A	final A
.. P A C	81	81	-	68	68	-
.. P((A)) C	25	25	-	58	58	-
.. P A A C	4	8	-	3	6	-
.. P((A A)) C	1	2	-	2	4	-
.. P A C((A))	3	3	3	3	3	3
.. P A C A A	3	3	6	4	4	8
.. P A C((A A))	1	1	2	-	-	-
.. P((A)) C A	7	7	7	21	21	21
.. P A A C A	1	2	1	-	-	-
.. P A C A	4	4	4	1	1	1
Total	130	136	23	160	165	33

1. The dots signify that the other elements are not crucial to the discussion.

Table 12.

Final	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	No. of Kls	No. of A eles.	No. of Kls	No. of A eles.
....A	1387	1387	1086	1086
....((A))	44	44	35	35
....A A	327	654	243	486
....A((A))	2	4	-	-
....((A)) A	16	32	26	52
....((A A))	3	6	-	-
....A A A	53	159	23	69
....((A A A))	2	6	-	-
....((A))A A	3	9	5	15
....((A A)) A	1	3	1	3
....A A A A	13	52	1	4
....((A)) A A A	-	-	2	8
....A A A A A	4	20	2	10
Total	1855	2376	1424	1768

6b. The three tables above account for all instances of A elements operating within clauses except the grammatical, thematic and A elements in moodless clauses. Table 13 below presents a picture of A elements within moodless clauses. Here the instances of A have been divided into (i) single A clause (ii) successive A clause and (iii) AZ clause, where the last is a "schematic" reference to the structure implying any arrangements of Z and A elements within the same clause.

Table 13.

A eles. in M'less Kls.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	No. of Kls.	No. of A eles.	No. of Kls.	No. of A eles.
(i) Single A	95	95	154	154
(ii) Successive A				
A A	28	56	21	42
A A A	2	6	1	3
A A A A	2	8	1	4
A A A A A	1	5	-	-
(iii) A (in AZ)	74	93	63	82
Total	202	263	240	285

Apart from the above we have 13 (F.F.) and 8 (A-S.A.) moodless clauses linked by an element A and consisting of the structure A[&]A. Thus the total of A elements within moodless clauses (nongrammatical A alone) comes to 276 (F.F.) and 293 (A-S.A.) The entire picture regarding the occurrence of A elements in the clauses of the two texts can be summed up as follows:

Table 14.

Non-grammatical A elements.	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	by itself	in combinatn	Total	by itself	in combinatn	Total
1st medial	47	24	= 71	74	43	= 117
2nd medial	116	22	= 138	136	31	= 167
Final A	2376	46	=2422	1768	85	=1853
M'less A	170	106	= 276	203	90	= 293
Total	2709	198	=2907	2181	249	=2430

'Combination' when used with reference to medial and final A elements refers only to the combination of A elements of different kinds: but 'combination' when used for A elements in moodless clauses may mean either more than one or one A elements in combination with Z elements, since clauses with only A elements have been stated separately (see table 13).

6c. The tables above present interesting points of contrast. Thus to compare tables 10 and 11, there is a higher occurrence of (a) medial A elements in general (b) medial A elements in combination, in particular in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Turning to tables 12 and 13, it may be noticed that A elements in succession are more frequent in Free Fall than they are in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. The fact that the actual occurrence of successive A-medial is higher in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than in Free Fall gains greater significance in the light of the findings from tables 12 and 13. These points of information are presented separately now to bring out the contrast.

6c.i The total of medial and successive A elements for the two texts is presented below. The second column states what proportion of the total A (non-grammatical) elements they comprise.

Table 15.

Success. and Medial A.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% total A	Actual	% total A
1st medial A	71	1.0	119	4.9
2nd medial A	136	4.7	165	6.8
Successive ¹ A	1039	35.7	724	29.8
Total	1246	41.4	1008	41.5

1. This includes successive final and moodless but not successive medial A elements.

The table above is interesting not only for the contrasts it displays but for the similarity of the overall picture (41.4 F.F. as opposed to 41.5 A-S.A.) The medial A elements and successive A elements may be considered as part of the "same" picture, by virtue of both being a-normal as the higher occurrence of single A final may be taken as an indication of the most normal selection. The medial and successive A selections in clauses are noticeable as a variation upon the most frequent pattern. Table 16 below will show the distribution of the successive medial A elements and medial A elements in combination, stating what proportion of the total occurrences of A elements and of the total of medial A elements they form. (It should be remembered that some A elements are common to both, succession and combination.)

Table 16.

Medial A elements	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in Med. A (209)	% in Total A (2907)	Actual	% in Med. A (284)	% in Total A (2431)
Successive 1st Med.	4	2.0	0.1	16	5.6	0.6
Successive 2nd Med.	12	5.7	0.4	10	3.5	0.4
Med. in Combination	46	22.0	1.6	74	26.0	3.0

6c.ii Single A final elements in the two texts and the proportions they form of the total are stated below. This will also include the single A elements in moodless clauses.

Table 17.

Single A Final	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% over total A (2907)	Actual	% over total A (2431)
Single A final	1431	49.2	1121	46.1
Single A in M'less	95	3.3	154	6.3
Total	1526	52.5	1275	52.4

Attention is here drawn to table 15. Compare the similarity of the overall figures and the contrasts within more particular categories.

The number of clauses containing at least one nongrammatical A element in them is 2257 (F.F.) and 1936 (A-S.A.). The ratio of A elements per average clause therefore is 1.3 (F.F.) and 1.2 (A-S.A.)

7. A further area where contrast seemed to exist was the proportion of the SP. structure in the texts. This is the most "minimal" of the types which may expound affirmative class. There were 301 (F.F.) and 646 (A-S.A.) occurrences of SP. structures in the two texts; these form 5.7% (F.F.) and 13.2% (A-S.A.) of the total of clauses in the texts. Again, this is a very outstanding contrast and in keeping with the general tendencies of the texts. Through the study of the sentence complexity and of complex types of clauses it has been noticed that there appears to be less tendency in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes to select the less normal or the more complex.

8. The last clause pattern that is to be discussed now is the moodless one. The texts seemed to display certain diversions in this respect too. Some of these moodless clauses have been referred to above in connection with the element A. Parallel to the moodless clauses mentioned

above, there are the Z moodless clauses, which are expounded mainly by the element Z, either in a simple clause or in a compound clause. A table stating A-moodless clauses, Z-moodless clauses and combined moodless clauses where both elements Z and A appear is presented below. The A- and Z-moodless clauses are subdivided into single and successive A, Z clauses. In columns 3 and 4 is stated the percentage of each type of moodless clause among a) moodless clauses themselves and b) the entire corpus. Some of the particular types occur very rarely, therefore the proportion with reference to the entire corpus is discovered for the general types rather than the particular ones, i.e. the percentage of (ii) is worked out instead of (ii) AA, or AAA etc., individually.

Table 18.

	F. F.				A - S. A.			
M'less Kls.	No.of Kls.	No.of eles.	% M'less <u>565</u>	% G.Tot. <u>5276</u>	No.of Kls.	No.of eles.	% M'less <u>502</u>	% G.Tot. <u>4896</u>
i) Single A	95	95	16.8	2.0	154	154	30.7	3.1
ii) Successive:								
A A	28	56	5.0	} 0.6	21	42	4.2	} 0.5
A A A	2	6	0.3		1	3	.2	
A A A A	2	8	0.3		1	4	.2	
A A A A A	1	5	0.2		-	-	-	
iii) Linked:								
A ^{&} A	13	13	2.3	0.2	8	8	1.6	0.2
iv) Single Z	306	306	54.2	5.8	222	222	44.2	4.5
v) Successive:								
Z Z	27	54	4.8	} 0.7	15	30	3.0	} 0.3
Z Z Z	7	21	1.2		-	-	-	
Z Z Z Z	2	8	0.3		-	-	-	
Z Z Z Z Z	-	-	-		1	5	.2	
vi) linked:								
A ^{&} Z.	8	8	1.4	0.1	16	16	3.2	0.3
vii) AZ ... in combinatn }	74	{ 93 104	13.1	1.4	63	{ 82 80	12.5	1.3
Total	565	777	* 99.9	10.8	502	646	100.0	10.2

The percentage of moodless clauses within the two texts is somewhat similar (10.8% F.F., and 10.2% A-S.A.), but considerable differences exist in the selection of particular categories, one of them showing a consistent contrast, namely that all the successive element clauses are in higher selection in F.F. Besides this, the AZ ... combination patterns have a higher percentage in the same text. With single element clauses ((i) and (iv)) a "balanced contrast" is noticed, i.e., the lower selection of one category is "cancelled" by the higher selection of another.

9. It is possible to continue the comparison at the clause rank of various other types e.g. of the imperative, interrogative and the affirmative types in greater details. There are other axes along which subdivisions may be made, as for example 'marked sentence functions' in the two texts. How many times does an affirmative function as a Question, or an interrogative as a Statement? Further, clauses could be subdivided into 'clauses quoted by X', or 'clauses quoted by Y' (X and Y representing characters from the texts), and non-quoted clauses, or it could be enquired if there are any contrasts between these intratextually and intertextually. The occurrence of rankshifted clauses is a significant factor for the clause complexity, and any enquiry of the actual occurrence and exponent types of these would be valuable information as would also a discussion of other elements of the structure of a clause. In the selection that is made of the parts of the clause-types and classes for discussion and comparison here, there is no implication that the selected parts are 'more' significant than the ones that were not selected. The selections are conditioned somewhat by the demand that any such exhaustive study makes in terms of time. An effort is made, however, in the next chapter to treat the exponents of the elements S/C and Z in all the non-rankshifted clauses in the texts.

CHAPTER IV: Comparison - the Nominal Group.

1. The total occurrence of the elements S, C and Z in the clauses of the text are as below:

Table 1.

S, C, and Z eles.	F. F.	A - S. A.
Z neg. ¹	537	420
Z pos.	94	82
C eles. ²	2639	2406
S ele.	3969	3846
Total	7239	6754

Of these elements some are expounded by rankshifted clauses, the details of which are:

Rs Kls. at S	33 (F.F.)	14 (A-S.A.)
Rs Kls. at C	29 (")	21 (")
Total	62	35

This leaves us with 7177 (F.F.) and 6719 (A-S.A.) elements expounded by groups. This number should not be confused with the actual number of nominal groups at these elements, since some elements have multiple exponents and therefore consist of more than one nominal group.

2. In discussing the types of groups exponent of these various elements, the types are not subdivided according to what element of the structure of the clause they expound, and sets of figures given below refer to the entire occurrence of a particular type without any indication of which

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1. See Section II Chapter IIB for the primary elements of the clause structure (2 - 2f): negative Z elements are "neither S nor C": positive Z elements are "both S and C".
 2. All C elements whether grammatical or not are included here. For details of some of these see the last chapter tables 8, and 9 above.

particular element out of S, C or Z they expound. The groups are divided into various types which are suggested by the frequencies of these particular types.

2a. The first distinction to draw attention to itself is that between simple and compound nominal groups. The simple group as said earlier¹ is expounded by the element h; the element h is here subclassified into h, h[?] and pn where h[?] stands for the class of words known as 'interrogative' words and 'relative' words, while pn stands for "head: proper noun". The compound groups are further subdivided into 'single' and 'multiple'² groups. The actual number of these various types of the nominal group and their percentile frequency in the groups at the elements S + C + Z is stated in the table below.

Table 2.

Groups at S+C+Z	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% gps at S+C+Z	Actual	% gps at S+C+Z
I: Simple				
i) h	3893	54.2	3510	52.2
ii) h [?]	132	1.8	78	1.2
iii) pn	310	4.3	744	11.0
II: Compound				
i) multiple	356	5.0	150	2.2
ii) single	2486	34.6	2237	33.3
Total	7177	* 99.9	6719	* 99.9

The contrasts are most marked where the simple pn groups and the compound multiple ones are concerned; other selections appear to be homogeneous.

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1. See Section II Chapter IIA The Nominal Group.
 2. Each multiple group is in fact a number of single groups standing in a certain relation to each other and acting as the exponent of one identical element in a given clause.

3. The multiple group has been discussed in some detail¹. Here certain subdivisions of the multiple group on purely morphological basis are made. The multiple groups may be first subdivided into i) serial multiple and ii) appositional multiple group. In the first, single groups standing in a serial relation act as the exponent of one identical element, in the second single groups standing in apposition act as the exponent of one identical element. Such pure relationships do exist in the nominal groups, but a combination of the two is also possible where groups are in serial relation with some groups which are in apposition. As an example consider the following which is an actual example from Free Fall:

$$d_b h, eh, \&nh, d_b h \quad q :: h\&h$$

3a. The serial multiple group may be entirely constituted of simple or compound groups e.g. h, h, &h or mh, hq, &hq or it may present a combination of the simple and the compound groups, e.g. in h, h, mh, h, &hq. These are referred to in this discussion as i) multiple serial simple ii) multiple serial compound and iii) multiple serial combined².

3b. The appositional multiple group is again subdivided into single appositional multiple or double appositional multiple, on the basis of whether there is only one appositional relation in the multiple group or more than one. Thus the structure quoted at the end of para 3 above is an example of single appositional multiple group. As an example of the double appositional multiple group consider the structure from Anglo-Saxon Attitudes:

$$eeh :: h :: d_b eh\&h :: d_b eeh$$

These categories of the multiple group are studied below. It may be added here that there is no possible brief means of stating all the ways

1. See Section II Chapter IIIA: The Nominal Group.

2. Notice that where apposition and series combine the group is called "combined multiple", which is different from "multiple serial combined".

in which these various categories of the multiple group may combine into one string of the multiple group to expound one element in the clause. This makes it virtually impossible to state many "general" types of the multiple group since each such group is a unique example of itself.

3c. The table below presents details of how many single groups combine into multiple groups:

Table 3.

Multiple gps	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% mult.gps	% Tot.gp	Actual	% mult.gps	% Tot.gps
I: Serial		<u>356</u>	<u>7177</u>		<u>150</u>	<u>6719</u>
i) Simple	94	26.4	1.3	29	19.3	0.4
ii) Compound	209	58.7	2.9	84	56.0	1.3
II: Appositional						
i) Single	51	14.3) .8	29	19.3	0.4
ii) Double	2	.6		8	5.3	0.1
Total	356	100.0	5.0	150	*99.9	2.2

Further details regarding the multiple serial simple and compound are presented below. In fact it is easy to account for the multiple serial simple as that only involves a statement of the number of h elements which occur in any such string. On the other hand, the serial compound and the combined present difficulties: they present such a varied list of combinations of the elements of the structure of the group that no better treatment than that of grouping these according to the primary structures of the groups involved could be devised. The table below presents information regarding the strings of simple groups in the multiple serial groups and the numbers of groups with the structures h, mh, hq, mhq entering into the strings multiple serial compound or combined groups.

Table 4.

gps: Serial multiple	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no. of ser.mult.	no. of sing.gps.	no. of ser.mult.	no. of sing.gps.
Simple serial:				
h, h	78	156	27	54
h, h, h	11	33	2	6
h, h, h, h	4	16	-	-
h, h, h, h, h	1	5	-	-
Compound/Comb.serial:				
h	} 209	{ 102	84	{ 18
mh		{ 241		{ 89
hq		{ 46		{ 27
mhq		{ 94		{ 35
Totals	303	693	113	229

Notice the very marked contrast in the selection of the simple groups between the two texts. A parallel table is presented below to show the contrasts within appositional multiple groups. It was noticed that there was a larger number of double appositional multiple groups in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than in Free Fall. Further the two examples of double appositional multiple groups in the latter text are "literally double" i.e. they consist of two groups in apposition. In comparison with this Anglo-Saxon Attitudes has a 3 double appositional multiples consisting of three single groups each, three others consisting of four single groups each and two of two single groups. The details regarding these groups entering in apposition relation are presented, as for the compound and the combined serial, in terms of their primary structures.

Table 5.

gps: appo multi.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no.of appo gps.	no.of sing.gps.	no.of appo gps.	no.of sing.gps.
h	53	(35	37	(39
mh		(45		(48
hq		(15		(2
mhq		(42		(12
Total	53	138	37	101

Both tables 4 and 5 give us some idea of how many groups per multiple group there are in the two texts. The ratio of groups in serial relation per average multiple group is 2.3% (F.F.) and 2.0% (A-S.A.) while that of groups¹ in apposition relation is 2.7% for each. Within this over-all similarity it is not difficult to see points of contrast e.g. in table 4 the respective selections of the simple nominal groups and mhq groups, as in table 5 that of hq and mhq.

Although by presenting these two tables it is ensured that some idea can be obtained of what is involved in multiple groups, it must be made clear that the above information is much too general to indicate the diversities that may exist in the two texts in selections at m or q, because in generalising a structure to mhq the particular structures such as for instance $mh\ q_a\ q_b \dots$ or mhq_1q_2 or $dbhq_2$ or ehq etc. have to be ignored. It is inevitable that the "heaviness"² of q or m elements corresponds to greater complexity; thus though two multiple groups may be in apposition there is little in common between them if one group has the structure:

-
1. This includes both the group in apposition and the group to which it is in apposition.
 2. Again "heaviness" may be defined linguistically as the selection of more secondary elements than is "normal" or the repeated selection of the same secondary element e.g. consider $d_a d_b d_c h\ v.$ $d_b h$ and $eeh\ v\ eh.$

$h :: h$

and the other has¹:

$$d_b nh :: d_b h \quad q_a^K q_b \quad 1 \quad \& \quad q_2^K$$

In this sense in fact, it appears that at group rank a subdivision of general categories into more and more delicate categories reaches a point where only the production of an inventory of actual instances would throw light on the variations, within the same text and between two texts. For the purposes of comparison, however, there will be the need to abstract from these inventories such general ones as mhq , mh or h as was done above.

4. An effort is made below to take the further step of examining each occurrence of m , and of q to check the complexities of patterning within. For this purpose, it is necessary to know how many non-rankshifted² nominal groups are in fact being dealt with, ignoring whether they are in single, multiple, simple or compound groups. Again, there are shortcomings in this manner of accounting for the patterns since at the end, it will not be known how many times which particular secondary m elements occurred with which particular q elements and in what way they entered into the groups i.e. whether the group was single or multiple. Such information is, it is intuitively felt, of great interest to stylistic studies but it was not found possible to arrange the data in this respect in the absence of a mechanical device.

The total number of nominal groups, expounding either in single or multiple groups the elements S , C and Z is stated in table 6. (All figures from now on relate to this total, whereas the previous ones are in relation to the total of $S/C/Z$ elements unless otherwise stated).

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1. Both these are actual examples from Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.
 2. This is an important modifier, as the number of groups in rankshift at c within the prepositional (structure = pc) is not stated here.

Table 6.

Nom. Gps.	F. F.	A - S. A.
I Simple:		
(i) h	3893	3510
(ii) h [?]	132	78
(iii) pn	310	744
	<u>4335</u>	<u>4332</u>
II Compound:		
a. <u>multiple:</u>		
(i) h in mult.	312	117
(ii) mh " "	286	137
(iii) mhq " "	136	47
(iv) hq " "	61	29
	<u>795</u>	<u>330</u>
b. <u>single:</u>		
(i) mh	1422	1277
(ii) mhq	567	488
(iii) hq	497	472
	<u>2486</u>	<u>2237</u>
Total ¹	7616	6899

Thus in each text at the elements S C and Z there operate the following numbers of simple or compound groups.

1. The total refers to all the groups whether simple or compound, individual totals for each category i.e. simple, compound multiple and compound single are underlined in red.

Table 7.

Nominal gps.	F. F.	A - S. A.
I Simple:		
h	4647	4449
II Compound:		
mh	1708	1414
hq	558	501
mhq	703	535
Total Compound ¹	2969	2450

The second part of the table may be rearranged in a different way according to whether we are concentrating on groups with m in which case mh and mhq belong together, or q in which case hq and mhq belong together. This is the practice followed in the general study of the selections at the elements m and q. The selections of h are not further scrutinized not because these selections may be irrelevant stylistically, but because a study of the present scope has to be necessarily selective.

4a. In the texts there are 2411 (F.F.) and 1949 (A-S.A.) nominal groups with the element m in them. The more particular details of selections are given in the table below. The facts are presented separately with reference to mh and mhq groups. Within these a general subdivision is made on the basis of whether there are more than one secondary m elements. Where there is only one secondary element, further particulars are presented regarding which ones these are. Of the compound-m selections, no separate accounts are presented. In the mhq groups, the general categories are subdivided according to the selection or non-selection of the element d_b ;

1. The total at the foot of the table refers only to the compound groups. It was necessary to set this apart from the total of the simple group since the percentage of m and q is worked out with reference to the compound groups only.

among those which select d_b further subdivision is made according to whether d_b is the only term in the group or not. Of the groups that do not select d_b a further subdivision is made according to whether any term from d is selected or not. These various categories are presented in the table below.

Table 8.

Secondary m elements	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% Tot. with m	Actual	% Tot. with m
<u>mh gps:</u>				
$d_b h$	1039	43.1	921	47.2
eh	234	9.7	146	7.5
nh	76	3.2	95	5.0
-;h	35	1.5	43	2.2
$d+/o+/e+/nh^1$	324	13.4	209	10.7
<u>mhq gps:</u>				
$d_b hq$	220	9.1	204	10.4
$d_a /-; +d_b hq$	48	2.0	97	5.0
$d+/o+ e+/nhq^2$	323	13.4	118	6.0
$o/e/n/hq^3$	112	4.6	116	6.0
Total	2411	100.0	1949	100.0

There are three areas of contrast in the table here. These are
 a) the contrast between the selection of a single element at m intratextually - this single element being d_b , both in mh and mhq groups, b) the contrast in the selection of some other particular single elements (not d, but o, e, n or -;) in mh and mhq, lastly c) the contrast in the selection of a "heavy" m where selection is made from two or more secondary elements at m or from

-
1. $+/$ means "and or". The selection at m here is at least of two if not more secondary elements. d may be d_a , d_b or d_c .
 2. d in these groups is never d_b ; it is either d_a or d_c .
 3. Notice the difference between $+/$ and $/$. The latter means "or". So that at m in these groups there is a simple m selection of either o or e or n but neither of d nor of more than one secondary m element.

the more delicate elements of the same secondary element (e.g. $o_a o_b h$; $e_1 e_2 h$; $o_a e h$ etc. See F.n. 1 page 336).

The selection of a heavy m may be treated as an indication of group complexity, though there are other factors that contribute to this complexity (one of which is the presence of the element q to be discussed below.) The table shows that in Free Fall there is a consistently higher selection of the "heavy" m, though there are interesting contrasts between the two texts with respect to the single e and n at the element m.

4b. The other element very relevant to a consideration of the complexity of the nominal group is the element q. There are a total of 1261 (F.F.) and 1036 (A-S.A.) groups with q elements in them. This is, however, not to say that the figures represent the total of individual q elements existing in the groups. Within these groups with q there are distinctions to be made between groups with q-single, q-recursive and q-serial. The last two types of groups have more than one q element standing in a recursive or serial relation. The table presents an account of these.

Table 9.

gps. with q	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no. of gps with q	no. of q-terms	no. of gps with q	no. of q-terms
q-recursive	194	437	193	421
q-serial	57	119	40	81
q-single	1010	1010	803	803
Total	1261	1566	1036	1305

4b.i The "number of q-terms" is different from the "number of q-elements", because terms entering in recursive or serial relation may

each be composed of more than one q element. Thus consider:

$$i) [q_a [q_b]]_1 \text{ \& } [q_a [q_b]]_2$$

$$ii) [q_a [q_{b_1} q_{b_2}]]$$

In i) above the q terms in serial relation are only two but within each term there are two recursive terms. On the other hand in ii) while the terms in serial relation change, those on the recursive remain constant, since being depth recursive the q_b element may be selected twice (or oftener).

These combinations present a problem, namely how to count the actual number of q elements in the (m)hq groups, so that neither any is left out nor counted twice so as not to distort the picture. Therefore a separate study of the serial and recursive q terms will be made below.

4b.ii Of the serial q terms Free Fall has 21 serial strings of q with one of the q terms in a recursive relation. This recursive relation did not go beyond q_b . The serial string itself consisted of $q_1 q_2$, thus the two terms of the string involve, in fact three q elements in either $[q_1] [q_a [q_b]]_2$ structure or in $[q_a [q_b]]_1 [q_1]_2$. There is one example of $[q_a [q_b]]_1 [q_a [q_b]]_2$ string as well. The contrasts obtaining in the selection of recursive complexes of q as one term in the serial string are presented in the table below. The first structure is noted only schematically as $[q_1] [q_a [q_b]]_2$.

Table 10.

Serial string	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	No. of strings	No. of q elements q ser only	q recur	No. of strings	No. of q elements q ser only	q recur
$[q_1] [q_a [q_b]]_2$	21	21	42	13	13	26
$[q_a [q_b]]_1, [q_a [q_b]]_2$	1	-	4	1	-	4
Total	22	21	46	14	13	30

The other combinations that exist in the q-serial elements, are the combinations of rankshifted q linked to rankshifted q or a linking between both non-rankshifted q elements or of both rankshifted ones.

The number of terms (here q) in one serial string is a relevant factor for consideration. The strings took the forms presented below. It should be pointed out here that 'q' in the table really stands for a particular term in the serial string, within these terms the q may be nonrankshifted, rankshifted or recursive. That is why the total for q serial terms is identical with the one in table 9 above.

Table 11.

Serial q string	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	no.of strings	no. of terms	no. of strings	no. of terms
q1 & q2	18	36	10	20
q1, q2	35	70	29	58
q1, q2, q3	3	9	1	3
q1, q2, q3, q4	1	4	-	-
Total	57	119	40	81

It is from this total of serial terms 119 (F.F.) and 81 (A-S.A.) that we subtract 23 (F.F.) and 15 (A-S.A.) terms since these terms are expounded not by single q in serial relation but by q-recursive (see Table 10 above). It is these 23 (F.F.) and 15 (A-S.A.) serial terms that yield us 46 (F.F.) and 30 (A-S.A.) q elements in recursion. These are called q combined-recursive and are accounted for along with the recursive q elements. But before this, a table is presented below stating each particular category of q element that were observed to exist in the analysed texts.

Table 12.

q-elements	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	q-eles.	% within total q (1589)	q-eles.	% within total q (1320)
q-recursive	437)	27.5	421)	31.9
q-comb.)	46)	2.9	30)	2.3
recursive)))	
q-serial	96)	6.0	66)	5.0
q single	1010	63.6	803	60.8
Total	1589	100.0	1320	100.0

Greater contrasts will be noticed in the area of recursive q elements and the single q elements. Both contrasts point to the same general implication: the element q appears to have greater complexity in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than in Free Fall. There are other details of q recursive which are, more delicately relevant to the complexity of the group. One of these details is the depths in recursion and in what proportion these are selected in the two texts. The details of these are presented in the table below. For this presentation both q recursive and q combined recursive are treated together. (See table 12 above).

Table 13.

q-recursive	F. F.			A - S. A.		
	Actual	% in q-recur	% in total q	Actual	% in q-recur	% in total q
q _a	217	44.9	13.6	208	46.1	15.8
q _b	217	44.9	13.6	208	46.1	15.8
q _c	44	9.1	2.8	32	7.1	2.4
q _d	4	.8) .3	3	.6	.2
q _e	1	.2		-	-	-
Total	483	* 99.9	30.3	451	* 99.9	34.2

There is a comparatively higher selection of $q_a q_b$ in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Not only in contrast with other selections intratextually but also in contrast with Free Fall here it is noticed that the total percentage of q recursive is lower in Free Fall though in agreement with the earlier selections that of q at and following depth c is slightly higher in the latter text.

5. There are two other points of enquiry regarding q elements
 i) the occurrence of discontinuous q elements, and ii) the selection of rankshifted or non-rankshifted q elements; among the rankshifted q it may further be enquired how many are expounded by a q^K and how many are instances of q^A .

There are in all 81 and 95 occurrences of discontinuous q . The type of q elements that operate at a discontinuous q are presented below in a table. The structures shown in the table are highly generalized and are intended only to give an idea of the kind of combinations, to show whether they are relevant to the problem of complexity. For example where a combination of q^K and q^A is in recursive relation, it is stated under a general structure $q^K q^A$ and not another $q^A q^K$, though there have been examples of these in the text. This is a delicate differentiation which it is felt has no obvious bearing on the problem of complexity as long as the combination itself is regarded as the entire pattern.

Table 14.

Interrupted q	F. F.	A - S. A.
	No. of gps with interrupted q	No. of gps with interrupted q
<u>Single:</u>		
q-non-RS	7	3
q ^K	60	68
q ^A	1	-
<u>Compound recursive:</u>		
q ^K q ^K	2	10
q ^A q ^A	-	3
q ^A q ^A	11	11
	81	95

A look at table 9 above will show that the number of (m)hq groups is higher in Free Fall. In view of this fact it is significant that a lower number of groups with q have an interrupted q in Free Fall. It is also significant that within interrupted q is found a higher selection of the complex q patterns in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. The groups with interrupted q form 6.4% of total (m)hq groups in Free Fall, and 9.2% in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.

5a. The details regarding the type of q elements in the two texts are presented in Table 15. A more delicate statement would take into account the various types of rankshifted clauses and groups operating at these elements.

Table 15.

Exponents of q-ele.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% total q.	Actual	% total q.
q-non-RS	135	8.5	67	5.1
q ^K	437	27.5	400	30.3
q ^A	1017	64.0	853	64.6
Total	1589	100.0	1320	100.0

Attention is drawn to the fact that though the selection of rankshifted q is higher in both texts, there is a higher percentage of q^K in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. The frequency of the selection of q^A is almost similar, and the main variations lie between nonrankshifted q and q^K selections. On an average it can be safely assumed that q^K is a "heavier" item than nonrankshifted q but as far as the relevance of each to the complexity of the group is concerned we are in no position to make an absolute statement. In the absence of any detailed textual studies of other texts in terms of the categories used here, any statement regarding these features is bound to be somewhat intuitive; nevertheless it appears that if the heaviness of q^K is a quickly noticed feature so is the a-normal-ness of the nonrankshifted q selections. Notice that if we add up the frequencies per cent of the nonrankshifted q and q^K in both texts they amount to an almost identical total, with Free Fall leading by a fraction. (36.0% F.F., 35.4% A-S.A.)

6. The above is as far as the analysis of the nominal groups expounding the elements S/C and Z was taken. In this para, the rankshifted clauses exponent of S and C are to be discussed. It may be recalled that the total of S, C expounded by rankshifted clause in the two texts is 33 and 29 (F.F.) and 14 and 21 (A-S.A.) The elements expounded

STRs of RS-Kls. at S in F. F.

STRs of RS-Kls. at S in A-S.A.

Cont.....

II. P-finite. (cont.)II. P-finite. (cont.)24. $S(h^?) P(fo/ t^-)$ 25. $S(h^?) P(f-\phi) A(ph) A(ph)$ 26. $S(h^?) P(f-) C(O_a h) A(pd_b h)$ b)27. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi)$ b)13. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-)$ 28. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi)$ 29. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi)$ 30. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-)$ 31. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-)$ 32. $C(h^?) S(pn) P(fm\phi-)$
 $A(pd_b h)$ 33. $A(h^? \dots p) S(dbh) P(f\phi) \dots$
 $A(a)$ 14. $\& p^{d_b h} p P(-ing) C(h)$
 $\& dbh ph A(p^{d_b h})$

The structure 14. in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is not strictly speaking a rankshifted clause expounding S, though there is a clause rankshifted within the structure. This is a structure that we meet in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes twice, in one case it expounds an A, while here it expounds the element S. The item exponent of the structure 14 is as below:

(Marie Helene made a sort of shocked sound, though)

whether at the irresponsibility of parking babies or the
 $\& p^{d_b} h p P(-ing) C(h) \& d_b$

choice of Brighton for a day's outing (was not clear).
 $h p^{Pn} A(p^{db} h)$

(A-S.A., 192)

This is in fact a case of mutually linked prepositional with a rankshifted clause all in turn rankshifted to act as S to the P (= was).

Each text has the "repetition" of a clause or part of a clause at element S in one of its exponents. No.12 in Free Fall repeats a part of the main clause (the clause that precedes and is repeated), no.1 in A-S.A. repeats the entire clause. Since this is a very rare kind of selection, the items exponent of these are presented to show what the notation stands for.

No.12 (F.F.)

(There was no bush to the outward eye; and)

only to dwell on this bush - (for bush will do as well

$A(a)P(t^-)$ $A(p_b^{d,h})$

as any other word) - only to dwell, (is to find it expanding)

..... $A(a)P(t^-)$

(F.F., 199)

No. 1 (A-S.A.)

..... to "opt out" - (he repeated the phrase, as

$P(t_{(P)}^-)$

though it was peculiarly realistic)- ' to "opt out" (at

..... $P(t_{(P)}^-)$

this critical moment would be quite indefensible.)

(A-S.A., 101)

For the rest the contrasts are very clear, but before beginning to discuss these it would be better to list the structures of the rankshifted clauses exponent of the element C in the two texts.

RS Kls at ele. C in F. F.

Rs Kls at ele. C in A-S.A.

I. P-nonfinite

- a) 1. $P(t^- (p))$
 2. $P(t^-) C(h)$
 3. $P(t^-) C(d_b h) A(pd_b h ph)$
 4. $A(p) S(h) P(t^-) C(eh)$

- a) 1. $P(t^-) C(h)$
 2. $P(t^-) C(h)$

- b) 3. $P(-ing) A(pd_b eh)$

II. P-finite.

- a) 5. $S(h^?) P(fp-) C(d_b h)$
 6. $S(h^?) P(f-\phi) C(h) A(a)$
 7. $S(h^?) P(f-) C(-;h) A(a)$
 8. $S(h^?) P(fmv\phi-) C(h)$
 9. $S(h^?) P(f-) C(O_a h\&h) A(pd_b h)$

- a) 4. $S(h^?) P(f\phi)$
 5. $S(h^?) P(f-) C(h)$

- b) 10. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-)$
 11. $C(-;h^?) S(h) P(f-)$
 12. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f--)$
 13. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-)$
 14. $C(-;h^?) S(h) P(f\phi)$
 15. $C(h^?) S(h) P(fm)$
 16. $C(h^?) S(h) P(fm) A(pd_b h)$
 17. $C(h^?) S(h) P(fp\phi) A(pd_b h)$
 18. $C(h^?) S(d_b h) P(f\phi) A(pd_b d_c h)$
 19. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-) A(a) , \&h \&h$
 20. $\& C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi\&\phi) \&$
 $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi)$
 21. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi) C(d_b nh)$
 c) 22. $Z(h^?) S(h) P_1(f-) P_2(t^-)$
 $C(d_b nh)$

- b) 6. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f--)$
 7. $C(-;h^?) S(pn) P(f-+)$
 8. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f\phi t^-) : d_b nh q$
 9. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f--) : d_b -;h q$
 10. $C(h^?) S(h) P(f-) A(pd_b h)$
 $A(a) A(pd_b h)$

- c) 11. " $P(f\phi)$ "

- d) 23. $S(h) P(f\phi) C(h^?)$
 24. $S(h) P(f-) C(h^?)$
 25. $P(fp-) S(h) C(h^?)$
 26. $S(h) P(f\phi) C(h^?) C(O_b h)$

- d) 12. $S(pn) P(f\phi) C(h^?)$
 13. $S(h) P(f\phi) C(h^?)$
 14. $S(h) P(f\phi) C(h^?)$
 15. $S(h) P(fp-) A(\underline{a}) C(h^?)$

Cont.....

again rare because the relation of the appositional group is to a clause (though rankshifted) and not to a group as is normal. The exponents of these are:

IIb 8. (A-S.A.)

(If, of course, this country were) what it proposes to be
 $C(h^?)S(h)P(f\phi-t^-)$

- a Christian country with a Christian polity.

$:: d_b \quad n \quad h \quad p^{db} \quad n \quad h$ (A-S.A., 103)

IIb. 9. (A-S.A.)

(She too had got) what she had intended - a further
 $C(h^?)S(h)P(f- -) \quad :: d_b \quad -;$

extension of credit.

$h \quad p \quad h$ (A-S.A., 51)

Structure 11 is rare as normally we do not have an imperative structure operating in rankshift. Here the two choices were (i) to consider it rankshifted or (ii) to consider it as a quoted clause. The latter decision was not adopted because the item is "built into" the structure of the clause exactly as if it were an exponent of the element C, as will be seen from the arrangement of other elements in the clause.

IIc.11. (A-S.A.)

(...She took them for late arrivals from the village

//and said) 'Hush' (very loudly // and pointed to the....)

$P!(f\phi)$

(A-S.A., 86)

6a. The main point of contrast is the frequency of the selection of this category (of rankshifted clause) by itself. But within this selection also there are noticeable points of variation. For instance there is a higher selection of compound groups in Free Fall as opposed to

Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. There is also a contrast in the selection of various general types as opposed to the others within the same text. It seems significant that there is a larger number of "more than minimum"¹ elements selected in these clauses in Free Fall. As an instance, the frequency of the selection of the elements C and A in Ia, b, and c in the above inventory and the frequency of the element C and A in type IIa and of A in type IIb may be compared. In all cases Free Fall appears to have the leading figures.

7. In the course of this chapter it has been demonstrated how the comparison of texts at group ranks is in fact a more complicated operation than comparison at the higher ranks of clause and sentence. The discussion of the nominal group presented here only represents a fraction of what could be said about the total selections within this group - specially when it is remembered that the chapter deals only with the non-rankshifted nominal groups.

A pertinent question is whether a more exhaustive comparison at this rank is of relevance to the study of style. The answer is in fact logically provided by the postulated definition of the term "style" in this study. Every type of pattern selection from as many linguistic² axes as possible is relevant to the study. Traditional accounts of style have in general seized upon particular lexical items and have shown their various alignments, associative values and such other aspects. A systematic linguistic study is in a better position to treat the "word" and its various classes in a more comprehensive manner. But such a study, mainly because of the highly multivalent nature of the members of the word classes and because of the multitude of delicate classes there are at this rank demands time and mechanical help.

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1. By "minimum" is meant: the smallest possible number of elements that a clause must have in order to be capable of expounding a particular class of clause. See Section II Chapters IIB-D where all types are listed and "irrelevant" elements are ignored.
 2. ie. parameters which may be validly set up within linguistics, with certain observable characteristics.

Again a mere statement of the frequency of various linguistic patterns is in itself revealing for the comparison of texts with reference to their register-identity. But certain tendencies of selections may be assigned certain linguistic values¹, so that we may be provided with a set of descriptive stylistic terms, which may be interpreted unambiguously within the framework of the descriptive model employed. The following chapter is an effort to "interpret" the various selections, in these particular texts.

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1. i.e. the higher selection of greater depths in dependence at sentence rank may be given a linguistic "value" as contributing to sentence complexity. It is felt that single features cannot be assigned absolute values, but the combinations of features may have to be treated as one "unit".

CHAPTER V: The Interpretation of Selections.

1. Statistical statements of the frequencies of particular individual linguistic patterns within texts are meaningful, but by no means represent all that linguistics can say about such selections. An important part of the discussion of the style of a text is to show how certain patterns alike in some respects align and result in a repatterning of the patterns. "Likeness" is a cline and ranges from the "most general" to the "most particular". The vectors of likeness may in general be referable to the descriptive categories of the model selected for the description of the text. Each such "type of likeness" may then correspond to a "descriptive" term to refer to certain specific stylistic qualities of the text. If such a descriptive term is to possess any value, it must refer to a particular alignment of features which may, upon observation be shown to exist. That is, the meaning of such a term would be a "constant" and would not vary from text to text. The value of each descriptive term as applied to a text will, however, be conditioned by the other descriptive terms applied to the same text. "A complex cohesive¹ style" is different from "a cohesive style" in that the former is also complex. Descriptive terms such as "cohesive" and "complex" are not parallel to such evaluatory terms as "better", "worse", "elegant", "pleasant", or "fragrant" as applied to style, since these latter terms have so far not been shown to refer to the selections of stateable patterns.

1a. It is obvious that the more exhaustive the study of the text the larger the area will be from which alignments of patterns can be demonstrated, thus narrowing the scope of new alignments which may contradict

1. These terms and the patterns to which they refer are discussed in some detail below.

any of the conclusions drawn from the study. To this extent a more delicate study is also a more valid study of a text. Of course, both the description and the comparison of texts as well as the interpretation of the comparative statements may vary in delicacy, but there is envisaged to be a point at which an interpretation of approximate delicacy would be very nearly meaningless in the description of the style of a text. Almost certainly these would be interpretations of isolated patterns made without regard to the evidence from other patterns within the same text. For example an interpretation could be made of the frequency of the simple sentences in the two texts, ignoring other frequencies. The meaninglessness of such an interpretation may be demonstrated by the fact that a study of the other frequencies would contradict the interpretation.

1b. It is, however, practically impossible to examine all the features of selection simultaneously, and a start has to be made somewhere. Where the text is intuitively ascribed to a particular register, it may be possible to single out those patterns for interpretation which may have been shown to be relevant from the results of the previous studies, if any, of such a register. Even here the danger is to guard against preconceived notions.

"A scientist will be interested in certain types of patternings which he recognizes in observation and he will want to investigate and correlate these patterns - in short, to see how they are put together and how they interrelate. He may be said to have a desire to find out how things work, in order to fulfil his desire as satisfactorily as possible he must have as few as possible preconceived ideas about the arrangement of patterns that he is likely to encounter..."¹

In this sense, then, no singling out of a particular pattern is

1. R.H.W. Dixon: *Linguistic Science and Logic*, pp. 35-36 (Mouton & Co., 'S-Gravenhage, 1963).

justifiable, if such an isolation of a feature does not form a step in a series of steps where feature after feature is isolated to be correlated in the end. It is unavoidable that in the process of isolating the features to interpret, the actual frequencies should play a large part. Thus those areas which either appear to be very similar or very dissimilar would naturally claim attention first.

1c. These areas of very similar or dissimilar selection, represent only the starting point - more delicately within these areas are discovered certain patterns like each other in some respects. This likeness is not necessarily limited to patterns of one rank or one level. Therefore a subdivision of the isolated area takes place, and this subdivision may be carried to the nth point through moves in delicacy¹. The dimensions along which patterns may be like other patterns are varied - for example the same rank assignment to two items is the expression of the recognition of one kind of likeness. Across ranks two patterns may be alike in the way that the elements of their structure combine together. Across levels two patterns may be alike in the way that they refer approximately to the same contextual

-
1. Delicacy "...is a cline whose limit at one end is the primary degree in the categories of structure and class. In the theory the other limit is the point beyond which no further grammatical relations obtain..." (M.A.K. Halliday: 'Categories' p.272, 7.4) This would imply that 'delicacy' and 'exhaustive description' are not interchangeable terms, since 'delicacy' would appear to operate only at the level of grammar. However, the scale of delicacy is also said to apply to the level of lexis (Ibid. p.275-276, 8.2) Presumably, then, each level is conceived of as having its own scale of delicacy to cope with its own particular kind of abstractions. The use of this term in the present study has been extended to refer to all delicacy in description resulting from "complex secondary classification based on multiple criteria, criteria which often cut across each other..." (Ibid.) These "multiple criteria" need not necessarily come from the level of grammar, as for instance in "cross-classification" as used in the present study. In other words delicacy is not only a scale for each level but also a scale in the synthetic description of language where categories from various levels are brought together.

situations, or have the same contextual functions. Thus it is clear that delicacy plays an important role in the interpretation of the selections of patterns within texts, since the more delicately isolated the patterns and the larger their number, the more valid the conclusions would be.

2. The most general descriptive terms in the discussion of style may be set up with reference to register-norms¹. Thus "historical" style would be a cover term for the selection and alignments of patterns the majority of which resemble those primarily associated with the register of history. There are two prerequisites for the valid use of any such descriptive terms, namely that a prior description of the register norm should be available and that the total of the selections of any text to which the term is applied should have been taken into consideration. Further, the application of the term "historical" to a text which on all accounts may be ascribed to the register of history itself, appears to be rather superfluous since the very fact of its belonging to this register is dependent on and productive of this particular style. Therefore it would appear that the use of such descriptive terms may be most revealingly made to refer to certain aspects of the style of a text in a comparative manner. Thus a text Y may have a "more historical than literary" style or vice versa. The use of such a description of the style will naturally gain meaning from the primary register-assignment of the text. This range of descriptive terms is not available here mainly because studies of texts from this point of view have not been made sufficiently widely.² In what follows an effort is made to interpret some of the selections tabulated in the previous chapters. In the course of this is demonstrated what is meant by "alignment", "subdivision

1. See Section I Chapter I: Introduction p.11-13 above.

2. See footnote p. 31 above. These studies are textual but the information regarding the selections at particular ranks and regarding their alignments are not known to have been made.

on the basis of likeness", and how the "descriptive terms" and their "meaning" may be determined.

3. At the sentence rank it will be noticed that the frequency of simple sentences is higher in Free Fall than in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Classifying the features of style on the basis of one isolate it may be postulated that the style of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is "more complex" than that of Free Fall. From this use of the term "complex", the meaning automatically assigned to it is: "lower frequency of simple sentences". There is no objection to defining the term in this way, except a pragmatic one. A descriptive term is being used narrowly and is accounting for the "likeness" of patterns which can be fully handled by a simple grammatical statement. It may be asked in what respect the relations between the two clauses of each passage below differ, the passages being:

- i) ///We children were underfed and scantily clothed. ///
I first went to school with my feet bare.///
(F.F., p.17)

- ii) ///It was all very well for him, // he wanted to
think about such things.///
(A-S.A., p.131)

Maintaining orthographic criteria for sentence delimitation, the two passages above would not be treated alike since the first would consist of two sentences, the second of one. But grammatically, at the primary degree of delicacy there is no distinction between the two passages - the relationship of the second clause to the first is the same in both cases. None of these stand in the structural relation of presupposed-presupposing as do the clauses of the following sentence:

- iii) ///Maurice's needs were, however, quickly forgotten //
when she recognized her own kin.///
(A-S.A.)

There are thus two sets of likenesses here. Either i) and ii) above may be put together because they consist of clauses without structural relation or ii) and iii) may be classed together because orthographically they present a certain similarity. Since structural relations are capable of being stated concisely and meaningfully and since clauses entering in such relation have a recognized status, it would be more profitable to concentrate on structural likeness than the orthographic one. So it could be said that wherever two alternative sets of likenesses are in question, that is better selected for study first which can be described formally.¹

3a. Since the features of similarity between the two sets differ in kind, if the term "complex" is used to refer to one, another term should be found for the other kind. Here "complex" will be retained to refer to grammatically compound structures, so that only selections of the iii) kind - that of presupposing-presupposed - will be relevant, as far as the sentence rank is concerned.² Again it may be noticed that the meaning of the term is narrowed to: "a higher frequency of presupposing terms at the sentence rank". With this concept of the term "complex", the style of the two passages³ below would be described as "complex" and "simple", respectively:

-
1. "Formally" standing as always for "that belonging to and accounted for by the level of form", not substance. The punctuation marks and other orthographic devices cannot be regarded as "formal" evidence since the nature of these is different from the nature of patterns which we refer to as "form". It is therefore unfortunate that the term "formal item" is used to designate that stretch of substance the relationship of which is being established through exponence to a category, whether in grammar or in lexis.
 2. For a more detailed discussion of sentence complexity see Chapter II 4 - 4e pp.283-295 of this section.
 3. The danger in giving such very brief passages as examples is the wrong conclusion that style, after all, is "spasmodic" and resides in stretches of texts; and conversely, that to talk of the style of such brief passages is trivial. However, it is impossible, for obvious reasons, to present larger examples and these examples here should be treated only as a necessary step in argument.

- i) ///He was there // when I left.///
- ii) ///Hazily and in pictures more than in
thought I saw my punishment to have
been nicely graded.///

(F.F., p.75)

It may be postulated that the two passages have a certain degree of likeness across ranks, as it were. Example i) consists of more than one units below itself and these units are in a certain structural relation, similarly example ii) consists of more than one unit below itself and these units are in a certain structural relation. It is almost inevitable that if the term "complex" is retained to refer to a particular structural relation only at the sentence rank, a comparable term will have to be found to refer to particular structural relations at other ranks. To extend the scope of the term complex, the feature of the compoundness of grammatical structures at all ranks may be made central to the notion, so that any unit constituted¹ of more than one unit below itself would be regarded as contributing to the complexity of the style of a text. This would bring both the examples above under the same category of style. While it has the merit of solving the problem of not distorting the general likeness between the two passages above, the solution, in its turn, raises certain other problems.

3b. The first problem raised by this concept of the term "complex" would be whether there will ever be a text the style of which will not be complex in this sense, and that being the case, will it be worthwhile to make a statement of this nature. Secondly, on reconsidering the two examples above, example ii) would be regarded intuitively as "more complex" than example i). If both contribute to a complex style, how can this difference be brought out? It would appear that just as allowing too narrow a scope to the descriptive term robs it of descriptive efficiency, in the same way

1. More correctly "constituted grammatically".

allowing too general and wide a scope renders it almost ineffective.

To solve these problems it is suggested that complexity should be conceived of as a cline and that grammatical compoundness should be weighted. On the other hand more delicately it may be possible to speak of complexity with reference to particular ranks as well as in general.

3b.i Since, more delicately, units may be 'compound' in various ways, a weighting of these various modes of compoundness may be of value. For example at the sentence rank clauses may stand in serial strings, in alternate linking, in recursive depth or in repeated depth. All these ways of being compound can be assigned different values with regard to each other, and these may be ranged on the cline of complexity as 'most complex' to 'least complex'. A pertinent question in this connection is to enquire into the value of "minimal" compound structures, e.g. in a type of the clause which consists of SP, where S is expounded by a group with the structure =h and p by a group with the structure =f ϕ (e.g. in "He is".) Here compoundness stops at the clause rank, but we may also have minimal types of clauses such that some of the elements of their structure are compound down to the word rank e.g. in "All those children ought to have been playing" where the structure of the clause is only SP. Similarly the value of an "obligatory" compound structure would range very low on the cline of complexity. An instance of "obligatory" compound structure is the prepositional, the structure of which must be 'pc' - with choices at c; is it, therefore, fair to assume that ph is not complex, though pmh is? Apart from the questions relating to the units of specific ranks there is further the question of weighting a sentence, which consists of two minimal clauses, with minimal groups, as opposed to a simple sentence consisting of a clause with a non-minimal structure, with groups

the structures of which is again non-minimal. Thus it would appear that to classify the style of a text as complex a whole multitude of factors will have to be taken into consideration simultaneously. To indicate a few, the questions asked would be such as:

Is the sentence compound?

If compound, state number and nature of presupposing and presupposed clauses.

Are the presupposed-presupposing clauses compound?

If so state a) where the structure is non-minimal

b) where contrastive systemic choices are made¹

c) where elements are in coordination²....

And so on to the 'word'-or 'morpheme', where the latter is a subject of study. The problems of the efficient description and classification of style are mainly a result of the fact that here the features of selection are relevant only when presented in combination. We have moved from linguistic analysis to linguistic synthesis, and "the major methodological defect" in describing the style of the text is "the anxiety to classify on the basis of single features where these are not only numerous but interdependent".³ Therefore, it is not surprising that in order to add to the descriptive power of the term "complex", the patterns to which it refers are patterns collected together as a result of a series of delicate classifications.

3b.ii It follows logically from such a concept of complexity that it involves an enquiry into the nature of patterns of all rank thus making

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1. E.g. transitive/intransitive or thematic/non-thematic.
 2. E.g. the distinction between a compound structure consisting of SP and another SPA&A.
 3. P.J. Wexler: On the Grammatrics of Classical Alexandrine, to appear in Cahiers de Lexicologie (Didier, Paris).

it necessary to "shunt". On the other hand the enquiry could either be begun at the highest or the lowest relevant end of the rank scale. Here the sentence rank will be treated first.

4. At the sentence rank the frequency of simple sentences and non-presupposed clauses in orthographically compound sentences is relevant to the discussion as it indicates the likelihood or otherwise of complexity by implication. It has been postulated that the simple and non-presupposed clauses constituting a sentence are alike. The figures relating to the two categories in the two texts are as follows:

F unpresupposed C-Sc	= 9.8% (F.F.)	26.9% (A-S.A.)
F in simple Sc	=23.7% (F.F.)	15.9% (A-S.A.)

The two figures are outstandingly dissimilar. While at the sentence rank, the concept of complexity would assign these selections together, it should be enquired if there are any other particular patterns within the compound sentences which are made up entirely of the unpresupposed clauses. Three sentences are quoted below to demonstrate what kind of relations may obtain between unpresupposed clauses within orthographically compound sentences:

- i) ///It was all very well for him, // he wanted to
think about such things.///
(A-S.A., p.131)
- ii) ///Frank Rammage's attitude could hardly be called
sentimental, // for it went farther than mere
feeling-// he regarded the dishonest and depraved
as almost sacred.///
(A-S.A., p.51)
- iii) ///"He's a very great historian", // he said.///
(A-S.A., p.106)

Although clauses in the above sentences are - with the exception of the first two clauses in the second sentence - not related to each other

through presupposition, there are clearly other relations which exist and may be described syntagmatically. The most general of these relations is the syntagmatic relation between the quoted and the quoting clause in the third example above. In the other two examples to show the relationship of the clauses to each other, reference has to be made to the class acting as the exponent of the particular elements of the clauses or to the selection of lexical items. If the continuity of a text is to be maintained these relations which may be established between clauses only through a delicate study of the relationship between their elements must always¹ exist. All the features which relate units, whether structural or non-structural are referred to as cohesion². Two units with such a relation are said to cohere with each other. Since structural relations between units are also cohesive features, it follows that all features relevant to complexity are also relevant to cohesion, with this difference: not all cohesion is a result of "complexity". For example consider:

Why should I bother about hats? I am an artist
I can wear what hat I like.

(F.F., p.7)

Here items would be ranged very low at the cline of complexity with the exception of the rankshifted clause in the last simple sentence, (i.e. "what hat I like", acting as C in the clause expounding the simple sentence). But cohesion between clauses is performed by the repeated selection of the

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1. This presents yet another field for enquiry, Are such delicate relations to be ignored since they are assumed to exist universally in all "connected discourse" in English. It would be interesting to note the difference in this respect, if any, between ordinary connected discourse and the speeches of such "mad" characters as Hamlet or Lear.
 2. M.A.K. Halliday: The Linguistic Study of Literary Texts (Preprints of Papers for the Ninth International Congress of Linguists, Camb., Mass. 1962) Cohesion is "generally described as a new alignment of descriptive categories". The categories in question are (i) grammatical and (ii) lexical. The present use of the term is therefore an extension since the cohesion of quoting and quoted clauses does not refer to any particular structural or non-structural category.

same class expounding the element S in all the three clauses and lexically the repetition of the same item 'hats' i) and 'hat' iii) as well as by the collocation of 'wear' to 'hat'. Thus in principle there exists the possibility of a style which is cohesive but not complex, though by the very nature of the definition of cohesion all complexities of style are relevant to cohesion.

4a. In order to exploit the concept of cohesion fully, it is necessary to state rigorously what the nature of items entering in cohesion relation is and whether, at least in grammar, they are relatable to a rank scale. Thus there may be cohesive relations in which the items entering in such a relation are the entire clauses themselves; this is distinct from a relation where two particular elements of two particular clauses "correspond" and cohere the clauses. It is suggested that more delicately cohesion may be subdivided into two types of cohesion, namely 'major' and 'minor cohesion'. In major cohesion the cohering item itself may be a clause and must cohere with a clause. In minor cohesion any one element of the structure of a clause ^{or} group may, by "corresponding" to an element of the structure of another clause or group, establish a cohesion relation between the appropriate items; or the feature of lexical repetition or of collocation may lead to the same result. The reason for setting aside cohesions established by clauses (as opposed to by 'elements of clauses') is obvious - it can be covered by statements of very high generality. Thus items entering in major cohesion relation would be:

- i) All presupposed-presupposing clauses.
- ii) All quoting clauses with their quoted clauses.

Those clauses which are neither presupposing nor presupposed whether

in simple sentences or in orthographic compound sentences and do not have the quoted quoting relationship either, can be related to each other only through some feature of minor cohesion. Thus this is the only relationship that exists between the nonpresupposing and non-presupposed clauses of the examples i) and ii) under para: 4 above. (see page 361) but the relationship between the unpresupposed-unpresupposing clauses of the iii) example is that of major cohesion. -

5. Thus the classing together of simple sentence clauses and of all unpresupposed F clauses cannot be justified, since some of the latter may stand in a relation which is somewhat different from the others. Of the 9.8% (F.F.) and 26.9% (A-S.A.) nonpresupposed F clauses the details regarding the major cohesion of quoting is as follows:

F unpresupposed quoting: (12) 0.2% (F.F.) (371) 7.6% (A-S.A.)

F " quoted with qg: (15) 0.3% (F.F.) (524) 10.7% (A-S.A.)

Figures in brackets refer to the actual occurrence of such items and the frequency has been worked out on the grand total of the clauses for each text. After subtracting from the total of the non-presupposed clauses these figures which represent clauses with major cohesion within the non-presupposed, what remains may be said to be like the simple sentence clauses in that it has the same minor cohesion relations which are available to the simple sentence clauses. The non-presupposed F clauses with minor cohesion relation are 9.3% (F.F.) and 8.8% (A-S.A.)

5a. Sentences having been delimited with reference to orthography, there is a further consideration regarding the F clauses of the simple sentences. Some of the simple sentences¹ have the structure B or &F.

1. See Chapter II of this section specially the tables number: 4, 5a, 5b, 7, 8a, 8b, 11 and 16 for the relevant clauses of the texts.

Clearly within the same orthographic sentence there is no presupposed clause, but it may be enquired whether such presupposing clauses "have" a presupposed clause, outside the orthographic sentence boundaries of B. or &F.

It may be generally observed that the clause presupposed by a &F is the next preceding^F element in the preceding sentence, though there are occasions when it may be at a distance of some sentences rather than in the immediately preceding one. On the other hand the clause presupposed by B may be an F at a distance of a few clauses, or sometimes as in the case of B¹, it may be totally missing. In cases where the clauses presupposed by simple B do exist, they must always do so in a grammatically compound sentence, where one of the presupposing clauses belongs to the same class as the simple sentence B clause. Examples are presented below to show these relations; the simple sentence &F or B has been underlined:

- i) ///Philip had no respect for authority, but caution
rather./// So he quickly slid alongside again.///
F. &F. (F.F., p.53)
- ii) ///I had spat ((though rather drily and inadequately))
on the high alter. ///But I had meant to pee on it.///
F((B^X)).&F. (F.F., p.75)
- iii) ///The verger said // I was another of them. ///
What was he going to do?/// He had to have help...///
F B . B . B ... (F.F., p.63)
- iv) ///All his movements were like that, // writhing // as
though the only source of movement was a sudden
pain. /// There was so much of him, such lengths//
that you could see the motion travel towards, //
bend his body sideways, //stretch an arm out // and
end in the involuntary gesture of a clenched fist.
///Did I like school? /// Yes // I liked school....///
B ? B B ... (F.F., p.77)¹

1. A larger part of the text is quoted in this example to show that the presupposed clause does not "exist". Only the structures of the relevant sentences are stated.

v) /// "Why did you do it?" ///
 /// Because. /// Because. ///
 F? B^x.B^x.

(F.F., p.65)

The implication of this kind of relationship is that a number of simple sentence F clauses (such as in the first and the last example) acquire a "presupposed" thus becoming relevant both to major cohesion and to the complexity of the style. The number of such clauses in the texts is 60 (F.F.) and 24 (A-S.A.). Subtracting these from the total of simple sentence F clauses, the remaining figures are 1193 (F.F.) and 756 (A-S.A.). These represent clauses which do not stand in any structural presupposition relation, and as far as cohesion is concerned qualify only for minor cohesion. To these may be added those unpresupposed F clauses which are like the former in qualifying only for minor cohesion. The picture may be presented as follows:

Kls with minor cohesion <u>only</u>	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% G. Tot.	Actual	% G. Tot.
F in simple Scs.	1193	22.6	756	15.4
F unpresupposed	493	9.3	428	8.8
Total with minor cohesion	1686	31.9	1184	24.2

5b. As a parallel to the above statement a table is produced below to show the alignments of patterns in major cohesion in the two texts. All presupposed clauses and all presupposing ones equally qualify for major cohesion, but where the syntagmatic cohesion of quoting-quoted is concerned, only those quoted clauses are treated as part of the cohesive unit, which are accompanied by a quoting clause, within the same sentence. Within major cohesion, there are clauses which cohere by a double cohesive feature that is, they may be the exponent of a term in presupposition relations,

and in conjunction may be either quoted or quoting. The table below accounts for four such relations.

- i) quoting-quoted (syntagmatic cohesion)
- ii) quoting presupposed-quoted presupposed, (double cohesion)
- iii) quoted presupposed-quoted presupposing, (Structural cohesion and possibly double cohesion).
- iv) non-quoted presupposed - non-quoted presupposing, (structural cohesion).

Types of major cohesion.	F. F.		A - S. A.	
	Actual	% G. Tot.	Actual	% G. Tot.
i) F-qg	12	0.2	371	7.6
F-qd unpresupposed	15	0.3	524	10.7
ii) F-qg presupposed	3	.05	85	1.7
F-qd presupposed with qg Kl)	6	0.1	117	2.4
iii) F-qd presupposed) without qg Kl)	148	2.8	335	6.8
quoted presupposing ¹	212	4.0	785	16.0
iv) non-qd presupposed	970	18.4	433	8.8
non-qd presupposing	2224	42.1	1062	21.7
Total with major cohesion	3590	67.9	3712	75.7

The table indicates that while the quoting quoted major cohesion is more highly selected in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, the selection of structural complexity at this rank is more often made by Free Fall. While 67.4% clauses in Free Fall are in presupposition relation, in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes this figure amounts to only 57.4%. From the information presented in tables 17 and 21 in Chapter II of this section it can be further proved that Free Fall shows a greater tendency to the selection of a wider range

1. These were not further subdivided according to whether they presupposed an F' in a sentence which also carried a quoting F.

of presupposing clauses. As far as cohesion is concerned, however, a larger percentage of clauses in Free Fall enjoy only minor cohesion, while in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes the number of these is negligible in comparison to the clauses which enjoy major cohesion. Thus the style of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes may be described as "more cohesive", the descriptive term possessing a degree of precision, which can be tested. Further, the description in this one respect may get more and more delicate¹, concentrating on the kinds of major and minor cohesion, and in minor cohesion largely on the differences between lexical and structural cohesion².

6. The figures relating to major cohesion in the previous table have incidentally thrown light on complexity at the sentence rank in the two texts. At the clause rank there are in general two kinds of compound structures, namely, a clause may consist of more than one primary element of the clause structure, such that each element belongs to a primary different class, and the relationships between the primary elements expounded by these classes differ from one combination of these elements to the other, e.g. SP and PC, where though P may be identical, its relation to C is different from that of and to S. The second kind of compound structure within clauses is where a string of more than one element from the same class of primary elements is selected. Such elements may either be linked or be in a series

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1. Like complexity, the various types of cohesion could be assigned "greater" or "lesser" value. Thus the cohesion which coheres units of higher ranks may be regarded as of greater value, especially since the relevance of cohesion is more pronounced at the ranks of sentence and clause.
 2. Although "minor cohesion" is to be taken for granted as existing in nearly all continuous texts, there may be registers where a particular form of it is conspicuous by its absence, e.g. in newspaper story headings the delicate structural cohesion of groups to groups and of groups cohering clauses is largely absent, as for example in: "Militant teachers seek £800 minimum Union rejects leaders' plans to peg top rate". (The Guardian, Tues., March 31, 1964, front page). Most cohesions between clauses, here, appear to be lexical.

without the possibility of being linked. Since at the clause rank linking between S or C elements is not recognized, the only other elements entering in a coordination relation are P and A (as in P&P or A as in A&A&A..). On the other hand the elements P, C, A and Z may be selected more than once with the same clause¹, of these only the negative Z and the A elements may be successively selected (as in ZZZ... or AAA) without being linked². -

6a. Various problems are posed by the inclusion of these possible patterns in considering complexity at the clause rank. The concept of a "minimal" structure for particular primary types which qualifies them to expound a particular class of the clause, is of value here. The weighting of a minimal "compound" pattern e.g. of SP, P((S)) or of A^dSP etc., can be lower than that of SPA, P((S))A etc., where the presence of A is irrelevant to the types' ability to expound a particular primary class. Similarly though successive A elements may be weighted highly, their value when occurring in a moodless (independent) clause may be considered lower than that in other clauses. Again the types capable of expounding the general secondary clause classes may be weighted somewhat higher than the minimal types expounding the structural secondary clause classes. Such weighting may be done within linguistics by referring to the frequencies of particular types of clauses, and to the amount of choice available to each type as the exponent of a particular class of clause.

6b. By comparison simple clauses are more rare than simple sentences. Mostly simple clauses consist of either an element A or Z, though P! (for

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1. See Section II Chapter IIE 1 and 2 for transitivity and aspect systems in the clauses, and Chapter IIIB Adverbial Group on the various places allowed to the element A.
 2. The successive string of ZZZ or AAA is considered more delicately a different kind of compound structure from structures such as SPZPZPZPZPC or SAPACA etc.

imperative) is also possible, and more rarely dependent clauses may also be simple (see the example v) quoted under para 5a above: "Because, Because".) Since the imperative clauses were not studied in any detail, the exact number¹ of simple clauses may not be stated, but the total of moodless and dependent simple clauses amounted to 401 (F.F.) and 376 (A-S.A.) corresponding to 7.6% (F.F.) and 7.7% (A-S.A.) of the text.

In grammatical terms there is no major variation at this point, but a cross-classification of these clauses by reference to more delicate sentence functions might be revealing. As an example the sentence functions may be thought of as "address", "response", "hesitation", and, for want of a better term, "onomatopoeia" (or "noise expression"). Some examples of each are given below to indicate what is meant - (all examples are from the text.)

Address: "John!"

"Ma!"

".....darling"

"....my dear"

Response: (a more delicate answer-function)

"Yes"

"No"

"What!"

Hesitation:

"err"

"Mm"

oh/ah

well

but, because (when clause-final)

-
1. Since a very large number of the types of clauses are involved in the text, a selection of these was studied in detail. These include types exponent of the general secondary clause classes, minimal types exponent of the affirmative, types exponent of the linked and dependent clause classes and those of the moodless clause class. See Chapters II and III of this section for details.

Noise expression¹:

- "Tick, tick, tick, (F.F.)
 "Giggle flap tremor, heart-thud" (F.F.)
 "Ptah! Ptah! Ptah!" (F.F.)
 "Wuff wubb wuff!" (F.F.)
 "Hi-yip! Hi-yip! Hi-yip!" (F.F.)
 "Jerk, jerk, jerk" (F.F.)

It is intuitively thought that most such cross-classifications of the simple clauses would reveal a degree of contrast between the two texts. All examples of "noise expression" for instance come from Free Fall, since in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes this function is encountered only once where the expression is "Ee-wik, ee-wik, ee-wik Woo-Woo-Woo". (A-S.A., p.194), and falls outside the text selected for study.

6c. Information from the study² of the various types (especially of the relevant elements of the structure, enabling the type to expound a particular class) shows that here again compound structures are more often selected by Free Fall than by Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Again not only is the frequency of compound clauses higher but also within this, there is a wider "range"³ of selection made by Free Fall. The coordinate P elements are not singled out from the texts, but in a discussion of the general secondary clause classes the number of P elements (where more than one is selected) is accounted for, similarly the discussion of double transitivity accounts

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1. "Noise expression" is preferred to "onomatopoeia" because the latter traditionally refers to only conventionalized sound patterns and as will be seen the category above includes not only certain individual coinages by the author, but also an "unusual" use of accepted non-onomatopoeic words (e.g. "jerk" "giggle" "tremor" etc.) as a means of expressing a particular kind of noise.
 2. See Chapter III of this section for details (Tables 1a, 1b, 1c; 2a, 2b, 2c; 3; 4a, 4b, 4c; 5 and 18).
 3. The concept of "range" is relevant to the description of the style of a text and will be discussed below.

for a double C selection¹. For the number of A elements in strings whether linked or not the tabulated accounts² in Chapter III of this section may be consulted.

6d. Regarding complex selections at the group rank, the statements are somewhat tentative; since the study of groups here consisted of only non-rankshifted nominal group any statements regarding complexity at the group rank should be considered applicable to this class of group only. However from the description of the nominal group it is clear that some of the structural complexities open to the sentence are generally available to the elements of the structure of the group. Thus the general relationship of elements entering in recursive or serial relation are present as in $q_a q_b$ and $q_1 q_2$. Here however some of the tendencies for the selection³ of specific kind of compound structure in the two texts become more specific. While in mh or mhq groups the selection of simple m is more often made by Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, and comparatively "heavier m "⁴ are selected in Free Fall, the selection of recursive q elements is higher in Anglo-Saxon attitudes. So far at the rank of both sentence and clause the relationship of linking is a favourite selection in Free Fall - this tendency is repeated at the group rank too - the serial q elements are more often selected in Free Fall. On the other hand, the selection of recursive q and of recursive q^K within this is higher in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, (see table 12 in Chapter IV of this section), though if the

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1. See Chapter III of this section, especially para. 5c for aspect clauses and Table 8 under para 5a for transitivity.
 2. See Chapter III of this section, especially tables 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18.
 3. For a detailed account of these selections see Chapter IV of this section.
 4. Ibid.

places on the scale of depth are examined Free Fall will be seen to select greater depths than Anglo-Saxon Attitudes does (Cf table 15, Chapter IV, Section III). It also appears significant¹ that the selection of non-rankshifted q elements is made oftener in Free Fall.

6e. This rather consistent tendency for the selection of a particular type of relation between the elements entering in compound structures is of interest. Wherever faced with a choice between recursive or serial (i.e. subordinate or coordinate) compound structures, Free Fall consistently shows a preference for coordination, while Anglo-Saxon Attitudes that for subordination. In cases where the choice is "freer" as in the repeated selection of the A elements in the clause, again Free Fall has a higher selection of these as opposed to Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. The result of the enquiry regarding the complexity of the style of these two texts may be summed up as follows: whereas Free Fall has a more complex² style, more delicately, Anglo-Saxon Attitudes shows a preference for that type of complexity represented by subordination, as opposed to Free Fall where coordination is the more favourite selection.

It remains to be pointed out that in the absence of the criteria for weighting various kinds of compound structures, and to the extent that the study is not exhaustive, the above conclusion regarding the complexity of the style of the texts may need modification, when such information is available.

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1. More textual studies of literary and other registers can provide the interpretation of this "significance". Is the non-rankshifted q a feature belonging more often to the literary texts? What percentage of q elements in a text may be non-rankshifted and yet be regarded as, in the words of the Prague-School, "automatized element" of English language as such?
 2. i.e. the frequency of compound structures in toto is higher.

7. "Complexity" and "cohesion" have been seen to be features of style which require a consideration of all ranks, and within this of particular types of alignments. Certain other alignments which do not cover other ranks in general but are related either to one, or to a particular set of ranks are considered below. As always, it appears best to start from the sentence, since in general to "style" where a consideration of the total of patterns in a text is necessary, the largest unit may be said to be more relevant, especially where grammatical patterns are under consideration.

7a. As emphasized earlier¹ the concept of a "norm" is of great relevance to style. The variation is always a meaningful divergence from accepted patterns. Certain patterns of variation noticed with specific reference to the sentence and clause rank are referred to here as "shift" in style². Shift in style refers to certain syntagmatic and/or structural patterns within and across sentences. The first type of shift may be said to be indicated by the a-normal selection of the dependent presupposing clauses in orthographic sentences which do not contain the primary presupposed F element. This structure was brought to notice in the discussion of major cohesion relations between simple sentence clauses³. In "shift" the same relation is looked at from another angle. The second type of shift recognized is a parallel of the above type where there is a change into quoted speech without following the normal convention of enclosing the quoted stretch into inverted commas or any other such indication.

1. See Section I, Chapter I above.

2. Like "complex" and "cohesive" the term "shift" is selected by referring to one of the general contextual meanings of the word. In all these cases the labels stand for certain observable patterns; as certain classes of clauses are associated primarily but not defined by their contextual function, so these features of style may be primarily associated but not defined by their work in context.

3. See para. 5a of this chapter.

In both these cases the reporting and the quoting clause are entirely absent, so that the fact that a particular stretch of clauses has made a transition to reported or quoted has to be deduced from associated features - mostly morphological. The third type of shift may be said to consist of a variation upon an established pattern of the text. This may be explained as follows: suppose that the terms in a sentence can be a or ab in any order and number. Then there can be a text such as follows, each comma representing a sentence boundary:

a, a, a, ab, a, ab, a, a, ab, a, abbbabbabbab, a,
a, ab, a, a, a, ab

In this case then the selection of one, or two terms in the sentence is a "basic pattern" against which the underlined appears to be a variation. Nor is it necessary for the varying pattern to be so heavily contrastive, though perhaps as in the case of complexity and cohesion, degree of variation too may need to be weighted. Where the variation is as marked as in the above hypothetical case, it may safely be assumed that it will draw attention to itself, but a minor variation such as the following would probably yield interesting information if enquired into:

a, a, a, ab, a, ab, a, a, ab, a, a, a, a, a, a, a, ab,
a, ab, a, a, a, ab

Some examples of these types of shift will be presented below.

7b. The above description of the recognized types of shift shows how the concept of shift is entirely relative. A basic pattern - either basic to the language as a whole or one basic to the text - is in some way "varied" and emerges as a "foregrounded element"¹. To accept the need for the concept of "shift in style" is not to accept that style is 'spasmodic',

1. Quoted by S. R. Levin from Prague School of Stylistics. See earlier references - mainly in Section I Chapter I above.

and that it is in areas such as these that a text has style. Being entirely relative the concept of shift would lose its meaning unless a general style for the entire text was first accepted. The usefulness of the concept itself may be proved pragmatically by what further meaningful statements may be made about the text with the help of the concept. Most generally, shift in style appears to be related to the textual context of situation¹. Some of the functions of the shifts of various types are discussed below where the examples of types are also illustrated.

7c. The first type of shift - that of a-normal presupposition relation - is exemplified by some of the clauses quoted below: those sentences which are outside the shift but form the two end points of clauses in shift are set aside from the others by a + mark at the beginning of the sentence boundary. The whole passage except the last sentence forms part of the same para in the text.

..... + ///There had been trouble with a society // he
said, /// and I inferred a secret society at
once. ///

B F & F

///They had had people // standing up in the back of
the Church // and shouting during the service. ///

B C & C

///That was bad enough; // but the society had
gone even further. ///

B & B

///People -(he wouldn't like to name them either, //
seeing // he had no proof // and couldn't swear
to a single one in a court of law))- people had
sneaked in during the dark evenings // and spoiled
ornaments, // torn down curtains // all because
they thought // the Church was too high. ///

B -((B C^XD & D))-&B &B C^XD

1. See Section I Chapter I above.

+///I remembered the sheaf of rectangles soaring
dizzily above the altar // and thought // I
understood.///

F &F B¹

+///The verger said // the rector had always been high //
but in the last few years he had seemed to be
getting higher and higher.///

F B¹ &B¹

///Then ((when Father Anselm came // the curate he
was)) of course he was just as high ((as the rector
was)) or even a bit higher //⁺ in fact, ((said the
verger)), he wouldn't be a bit surprised // if one of
these days - ///

&B ((C^xB)) ((C^x))-B¹ ((F))C^x-

+///But there he broke off // leaving me to wonder.///

&F B^x

(F.F., p.73)

In noting the structure of the sentences those elements have been underlined which contribute to the shift in style. Notice that in the last but one sentence the last three clauses are not a part of the shift, strictly speaking, since they have a normal presupposition relation which ultimately relates them to the F element of the sentence. -

It appears that in Free Fall the contextual function of shift is to convey on the part of the narrator a feeling of "amazement" or "lack of comprehension" of the situation. In the example above this is borne out by the "overt" mention of "wonder" in the last sentence quoted above. Such overt admission of wonder or incomprehension does not necessarily accompany the shift, but the surrounding context supports this interpretation of the shift, as in the following passage:

+///The grey lady looked down at me across whole
continents and oceans // and told him // that
the rector must decide. /// So the verger opened
another door // and led me through into darkness
on gravel.///

F &F B¹. &F &F.

///He was talking down to me, // I deserved the
birch // and ((if he had his way)) I should
get it - //boys.///

F B &B ((C^x))-B

///They were young devils // and getting worse and
worse every day, like the world // and ((where
it would end)) he didn't know // and no one else
seemed to either.///

B &B &B ((C)) &B

+ ///The gravel felt // as if it had been ploughed //
and my feet felt unclever.///

F B^x &F

(F.F., p.63)

7c.i The same kind of shift when occurring in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes correlates to a different contextual function. Here the function of the shift is to indicate a transition from the writer as a narrator to a character in the fiction as a narrator. As an example consider the following:

+ ///Inge, too, went upstairs with a light step.///

F.

///Johnnie would be home tomorrow for a whole fortnight.///

B.

+ ///That fortnight seemed to stretch indefinitely
in her mind.///

F

///But she would need Larrie's help.///

&B

///Johnnie's other friendships had been taking him
farther and farther away from him; // she must not
allow this opportunity to disappear.///

B;B.

+ ///She reminded herself // that she had no right to
expect perfection of Larrie.///

F B".

///If she had brought an ex-Approved School boy into
the house, // she had no right to complain // if
he behaved like one.///

C^xB C^x.

///Hostility and criticism would not reform him; //
she would show patience and kindness.///

B B

///She was proud of this determination.///

B

///Also, ((if Johnnie did not object to Larrie's fits
and his other ~~naughty~~ ways - // ⁺this covered in
her mind the unpleasant episode of Irmgard-)) it
was not for her to complain.///

&B ((C^x-F))

///Better an unreformed Larrie ((who brought
Larrie home)) than no Johnnie.///

B((C⁺))

⁺///Of this chain of thought she was less proud.///

F.

(A-S.A., p.257)

The contrast between the clauses marked by a ⁺ and those in shift will demonstrate that there is a transition of focus. While the clauses marked by ⁺ in the example above present the narrator's comments, those in shift indicate Inge's view of the situation (in the text). As a support of this view may be presented the fact that within such shifts the forms of address and the peculiarities of speech in each character, transition to whom is being made, are maintained. For instance, except Larrie or Mrs. Middleton no other character in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes consistently refers to John Middleton as "Johnnie".

7c.ii An example of the second kind of shift is presented below. The first part of the quotation is presented to show how no conventional marks for the quoted clauses are provided and how the shift is a sudden

change; the passage represents three sets of shifts and they are marked as I, II and III below:

+ /// Now more than the generalized dark, the centre
of the cell boiled with shapes of conjecture. ///
A well. ///

I. /// Do you not feel // that the floor of the cell slopes
downward? /// You will begin to roll inward ((if you
move,)) down to the well and the ant-lion at the
bottom. /// If you are worn out with the fears of
conjecture // you will fall asleep // and roll- ///

II. /// We want information, not corpses. ///

/// We want you to feel forward, inch by inch, line by
line over the concrete, with one ungloved hand. ///
We want you to find a curious half moon of hardness,
polished, // at the edge, polished, but in the centre
rough. ///

+ /// The darkness was tumbling and roaring. /// I lost the
door. ///

III. /// Don't let them know // you've lost it. /// Find it
again. /// Ignore those green, roaring seas, //
ignore the mouth agape ///

+ /// And then I was back in my corner again after the
frantic scramble round the wall //

(F.F., p.175-176)

As the clauses marked + will show there are good reasons for regarding the other parts of the passage as a-normally quoted clauses - especially considering the selections of the personal pronouns. Examples I and III are quoted speech of the central character while example II is that of other persons. Again the evidence for this is provided by the use of the pronouns.

This type of shift was not found in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. The only extensive use of this type of shift made in Free Fall is at a point where the central character is in the grips of extreme terror. Therefore

it is not easy to generalize any further than to say that such a shift may correspond to a feeling of "disorientation" in the character involved. There is one clause quoted a-normally in the same text where fear and the incitement to "dare" combine. The example is worth quoting as it represents the two types of shifts discussed above, combining within one passage:

+///No, not the window, // said Philip; // but he
bet and he bet./// So we moved by dare and
vaunt and dare and vaunt // until I was //
where he wanted me ///

I. ///I might lick every boy in the school, // but
not this, // I wouldn't, // I wouldn't dare -//

II. -//honest, Sammy, you better not!//.....

+///"I would, then, see? ///I'd piss on it".///

(F.F., p.59)

Here I represents the type of shift in which reported clauses enter when the presupposed term is not present in the same sentence, while II is a quoted clause in shift, for obvious reasons.

Given this amount of evidence it seems fair to assume that such shift (the second type) is an accompaniment of "disorientation and terror".

The third kind of shift is rather difficult to exemplify as the nature of this type of variation can be only shown after a basic pattern has been established. The possibility of such a shift was suggested from examining the sentence structure sheets¹, but no further details were studied. Such shift is more noticeable in Free Fall as the reading of almost any page from the text may show.

7d. The entire discussion of shift in style should be regarded as a tentative approach towards meaningfully contextualizing some of the

1. See Chapter I of this section where a small sample of the sheet is produced on page 265.

selections of the text which may be indicated by an analysis at the grammatical level. The 'inference' of textual situation presents, perhaps, the greatest problem in the interpretation and the study of a literary text. If what has been called shift in style here can be demonstrated to contribute to a valid means of 'inference' as it appears it may be, then the value of the concept may be positively proved.

In order to achieve this end, the concept will require further rigourisation. Perhaps items belonging to ranks lower than the clause will have to be included, and probably items of very delicate classes may have to be studied in particular texts¹. Lexical patterns may again appear to be amenable to a discussion in terms of shift, though in this case the description of what constitutes shift may be very different from what is to be said about it at the level of grammar. An example of what might be considered lexical shift can be indicated from the following passage:

.....Weighed down with doubts, struggling with his depression, he made his way to his study to telephone his wife. As he walked through the hall he caught sight of his handsome, flushed features, his tall erect figure in the long gilt mirror and was disgusted. "Good God", he thought, "what a bloody shameful waste!"

Rose Lorimer, struggling with weighed-down shopping baskets, made her immense way among the marble and mosaic of the Corner House, caught a passing view of herself in a mirror and was pleased.....

(A-S.A., p.16)

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1. Such an instance of shift is discussed by Professor McIntosh in his *As you Like It: A grammatical Clue to Character* (Review of English Literature Vol. IV, 1963; also to appear in a Volume of essays entitled *Patterns of Language: McIntosh and Halliday*, to be published by Longman's, London.) Professor MacIntosh discusses the variations in the use of "thou" and "you" in Celia and Rosalind's speech and relates these variations to changes in the situations and in the characters of the speakers. The "shift" itself he refers to as a "nuance". It may be noted that he is dealing with a very delicate subclasses of words from the nominal group, that is, pronominal head, (or modifier = d_p), singular, second person, intrinsic and multivalent singular/plural, second person, intrinsic.

The second paragraph shows a change in situation and this change is accompanied -perhaps it could be said 'signalled' - by a shift at the lexical level. There are two dimensions of the shift (i) maintaining the 'same' lexical items but collocating them with a variation and (ii) selecting lexical items from directly opposite sets, e.g. 'disgusted' and 'pleased', (doubly-underlined). Lexical manipulation appears to be a common device in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes for announcing a change in the situation. There are innumerable examples of this in the text. For example, six pages after the above example, we come across:

"Let's go by underground, shall we, dear?" said Dr. Lorimer, "I love the rush hour tubes; so full of interesting types. Your raw material, I suppose."

Clarissa's heart sank.

Mrs. Chun's heart sank, as she recognized her husband's mood.....

(A-S.A., p.22)

And again the 'Mrs. Chun situation' is changed thus:

....."Goodbye", he said, "and whatever you do, don't fuss this evening." He set off to walk briskly across the common.

"Whatever you do this evening, Theo, please don't get into a fuss", said Jasper Stringwell-Anderson. He stretched his long tweed-clad legs across the sofa.

(A-S.A., p.25)

8. The concept of "range" was introduced¹ in a discussion of the complexity of style in the texts. "Range" is a concept which exploits the selection of type and class together; thus it may not be pertinent to the sentence rank but only to the ranks of the clause, the group and the word.

1. See para. 6c of this chapter, above.

In order to clarify what is meant by range, the first relevant question to answer is regarding the identity of a type. A type is a combination or sequence of certain elements, but not all sequences may be regarded as a case of "different type" at the primary degree of delicacy.

"It is perhaps doubtful whether there are any instances in language where a difference in sequence makes no difference whatever to the meaning, and therefore does not need to be recognized as expounding a different structure.....But....it may, be significant at varying degrees of delicacy....."¹

Some particular sequences of elements are primarily related to a class. Such structures have been referred to as "minimal" before. However, not only may a type be multivalent, but also a class may consist of a number of types². Given that the selection of a particular class is determined by the structure of the unit immediately above, the class itself may enjoy varying degrees of choices in the selection of a particular type as its exponent in a given instance. A clause expounding the element B^x must belong to the class: conditioning, but within this, the selection of a type may be made from a "range". Thus in the study of a text where the frequency of various clause classes have been stated, it is meaningful to state the frequency of various types selected to expound the classes. It is this kind of alignment of class and type that "range" accounts for. Given this description of "range" it is clear that it applies more to classes which have a multiple choice of types as exponents rather than to those which are limited to one type, as the imperative and the affirmative clause classes. It would appear then that where a particular structure is the crucial exponent of a class, the class would be irrelevant to the discussion of "range".

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1. M.A.K. Halliday: Class in Relation to the Axes of Chain and Choice in Language (Linguistics, 2, Dec., 1963).
 2. See the summary of these relations at the end of Chapter IID in Section II above.

8a. Since in this respect varying degrees of choices with reference to classes of units at various ranks exist, and since these may be exploited to varying extents, it appears desirable to think of range as a cline, with 'narrow' and 'wide range' as the end-points of the scale. Given that the enquiry regarding types is with reference to a particular class, a certain set of frequencies may be stated as follows:

Types available: a, b, c, and d

narrow

100%	type a only
50%	type a + 50% type b
33%	type a + 33% type b + 34% type c
25%	type a + 25% type b + 25% type c + 25% type d ¹

wide

"Range" is not co-extensive with complexity, but clearly some evidence contributing to complexity may also point to the type of "range" selection.

A consultation of the tabulated evidence regarding the types exponent of the presupposing class of clauses and the types of groups exponent of the nominal group will reveal that from this account of the pattern selection the "range" is wider in Free Fall than it is in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.

9. Since in range the types that are concerned are all primary types, particular contrasts discovered in the selection of "optional" elements e.g. the nongrammatical A element in the types of clauses which expound the various clause classes, cannot be accounted for. In particular a study of table 15 in Chapter III of this section will present an interesting picture, since here the overall selection is almost identical, but within this there are very striking contrasts. To cope with contrasts which may

1. See Chapter II of this section especially table 6 where another case of balanced contrast with reference to F and &F clauses in simple sentences is presented.

be traced only by a more delicate study and comparison of the text the term "balanced contrast" is introduced.

9a. "Balanced contrast" presupposes that the study of a primary class has been carried further in delicacy so that the contrast relates to certain delicate classes. As an example¹ of this figures relating to the selection of mobile A elements are presented below:

first-medial A	1.0% (F.F.)	4.9% (A-S.A.)
2nd-medial A	4.7% (F.F.)	6.8% (A-S.A.)
successive A	35.7% (F.F.)	29.8% (A-S.A.)
Total	41.4%	41.5%

The two totals may be regarded as an instance of balanced contrast.

10. Derived from a consideration of some of the types exponent of the presupposing clause classes is another descriptive term: "elliptical". A style is here said to be more or less "elliptical" according to whether there is more or less selection of minus-linking type and minus-S conditioning non-finite types. The imperative clauses are not considered in this connection because the crucial criterion of an imperative clause is the structure $\$P!$. In other words, generally, there is no choice of minus or plus. Further, the elements C and A are excluded, except where the element C is absent together with element S in a linked clause. This decision was taken because the elements C and A are not relevant to the structural secondary clause classes. Therefore the only types which are recognized as contributing to "elliptical" style are:

-S linking
 -P "
 -pP "

1. See Chapter II of this section especially table 6 where another case of balanced contrast with reference to F and &F clauses in simple sentences is presented.

- S, -P linking
- S, -C "
- S, P nonfinite (conditioning)

A general reference is made to tables 1a, 1b, 1c, 2c, 5 and 7 for a comparison of these in texts.

10a. Like most other forms in stylistic description 'ellipsis' is better considered as a cline. Two factors determine the scales of this cline a) the frequency of elliptical types and b) the frequency of double elliptical types. In contrast to the last there are types in which one element may be absent but a linking or dependent A element may be present. (i.e. double feature with minus and plus). In general ellipsis has a higher frequency in Free Fall as compared to Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, though certain particular elliptical types are more frequent in the latter e.g. -S-conditioning.

11. The discussion and interpretation of the selections of the grammatical patterns in the two texts may be brought to a close by a summary of what can be stated about the styles of these texts.

The style of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is discovered to be more cohesive, with a higher degree of major cohesion: in Free Fall there is a higher selection of only minor cohesion, and major cohesion is chiefly performed by units which relate to the complexity of its style.

While in general the style of Free Fall displays greater complexity, in particular the selection of recursive patterns is more often made by Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than is the serial. The serial selection forms a higher proportion of the compound structures selected by Free Fall.

Both texts exploit the device of shift in style, but Free Fall has

a greater variety of grammatical shift, whereas Anglo-Saxon Attitudes more consistently exploits the anormal reported shift and the lexical to correspond to particular situational features in the textual context of situation.

There is a wider range of selections in Free Fall as far as the presupposing and the rankshifted clauses are concerned. Anglo-Saxon Attitudes shows a tendency to prefer the "simplest" of the types more consistently. Hence its range is narrow.

There are areas of balanced contrast, where the selection of patterns at one axis looks similar but where a more delicate breakdown of the total corresponds to various contrasts. This applies mostly to certain classes of linked clauses and to the frequency of the nongrammatical A elements.

There is a higher occurrence of ellipsis in Free Fall than in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.

Anglo-Saxon Attitudes has a greater proportion of quoting and quoted clauses. Within the quoted clauses the frequency of presupposition relations between clauses is almost consistent with the frequency for the overall text, while in Free Fall most quoted sentences happened to be simple. This implies that the "quality" of the psuedo-register of conversation in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is different from that of Free Fall. A further study might reveal whether the flashback "situation" of some of the conversations in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes has an effect on the style of the "quoted" part of the text¹.

11a. Although these descriptive stylistic terms have been set up by reference to the particular texts under study, it is suggested that the

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1. Further, this selection may be compared with actual conversation to show whether the change from non-conversation is in principle "consistent" with the real register of conversation.

features thus abstracted may be regarded as "stylistic devices" potentially available to the writers of modern English. Obviously some of these devices are more relevant to the register of literature than to, say, that of science; for example "shift" as a device is hardly likely to be exploited in a particular kind of text in the register of science.

11b. It appears desirable to keep "stylistic device" separate from "stylistic feature". All stylistic devices are potentially stylistic features, but the term "stylistic feature" is reserved in this study to refer to only that stylistic device which is most commonly exploited by an author either in one or all of his writings. Thus we may say that "coordinative complexity" is a stylistic feature of *Free Fall*, since it is a device often exploited in the text. "Often" may be interpreted either by reference to all ranks or to higher frequencies within one rank, where other ranks are not relevant.

It should, however, be added that various questions have been left unanswered. To mention a few: the meaning of successive and non-successive repeated selections (e.g. the selection of A as in S P C A A A and S A P A C A) could not be stated nor solution presented for the weighting of patterns with reference to cohesion, complexity and range. Again, does the similarity of the choice of the general secondary clause classes indicate that these selections are, as it were, not centrally contrastive? That such questions should be raised, without offering any solutions, is unavoidable in the scope of a study of this type, but it is felt that exhaustive studies of the texts of all registers are the only means of providing satisfactory answers to the questions raised above.

SECTION IV.

CHAPTER I : Lexis.

1. The model of description selected here recognizes lexis as an independent level, with patterns which lend themselves to a treatment different in kind from that in grammar. The "unit"¹ of description may be called "lexical item". Lexical items are those items of the language the selection of which may not be predicted even at the maximum degree of delicacy by remaining within grammar except in such general terms as to indicate which of the open-ended classes may be selected. Thus given the incomplete utterance:

This is a -.

and given that the blank stands for one exponent of the unit: 'word', grammar can only indicate that the selection must be from among the members of the open-ended class of the word: "singular-noun". Grammatically, all items "book" "boy" "girl" and "cabbage" are equally eligible for selection.

2. While it is easy to use this criterion for the recognition of a lexical occurrence², the criterion is not competent to indicate in what way two occurrences are alike or different from each other. The recognition of two lexical occurrences as representing a recurrence of the same item or the occurrence of two separate items presents problems which cannot be solved

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1. Although the term "unit" is employed here, the meaning of the term is very different from that in grammar. For instance, it does not appear likely that unit in lexis may be ranged on a taxonomic rank-scale. However, see J. McH. Sinclair: *Beginning the Study of Lexis* (to appear in Firth Memorial Volume, to be published by Longmans).
 2. "Lexical occurrence" is used here to mean: "the occurrence of an item the selection of which may not be predicted by grammar even at the maximum degree of delicacy". While "lexical occurrence" may be "spotted" as "not grammatical", a statement of the identity or otherwise of two occurrences is beyond the power of grammar. The difference between 'lexical occurrence' and 'lexical item' is that the former can be recognised through grammar, the latter cannot.

by reference to any other level but that of lexis. Orthography provides no definite answer, since "spring" and "spring" look alike but may be two items as in "spring₁ of this bed" and "spring₂ in the mountains". On the other hand, "clench" and "clenched" are different in orthography, but there is no reason to assume that they are not the same item in lexis. Similarly, grammar assigns different values to "blue" in

- i) It was a blue sari
- and ii) The sari was blue.

But again there is no reason to assume that lexis will follow suit. It is therefore necessary to establish some means of recognizing a lexical item (as apposed to a lexical occurrence.)

2a. Since most texts include more than one lexical occurrence¹, the 'environment' of a lexical occurrence can be used for identifying lexical items. Thus it may be noted that "spring₁" frequently co-occurs with "weak/strong/new...", "bed/chair/settee..." or "screw/nut/bolt/wire..." while 'spring₂' may not co-occur with any of these with more than random frequency. This co-occurrence of items is called "collocation". It is the frequency with which certain lexical occurrences coincide within a given "span" of the text which helps establish the identity of lexical items². The concepts of "frequency" "randomness" and "span" are therefore crucial to the identification of a lexical item. Before the inventory of the lexical item of a language

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1. Where this is the case a text may be genuinely ambiguous, so that if the text was "This is a spring", it may be interpreted as "This is a spring"₁ or "This is a spring"₂, and so on to correspond to the number of lexical items that the orthographic "spring" represents. The occurrence of what is clearly more than one item is not necessarily unambiguous. Thus see the example quoted by M.A.K. Halliday "He came out with a beautiful model", (Cf. Lexis as a Linguistic Level, Firth Memorial Volume, to be published by Longmans, London) where the problem is precisely that both "model" and "come" may represent more than one lexical items.
 2. But the problems in arriving at a decision regarding the identity of lexical items are vast. A discussion of these is presented by J.McH.Sinclair in Beginning the Study of Lexis (to appear in Firth Memorial Volume, Longmans, London).

can be compiled it is necessary to know what degree of frequency of co-occurrence is to be regarded as "crucial evidence", what degree is to be considered as "random" and what constitutes a "span. Further, 'spring'₁ and 'spring'₂ are not 'freak' occurrences; it cannot be assumed that one orthographic item will normally correspond to one lexical item thus "screw/nut/bolt/wire" all appear to be one orthographic manifestation of more than one lexical items. This naturally complicates the task of identifying lexical items.

2b. It is not the case that 'spring'₁ is the only item with which a range of items - supposing that these items have been identified - such as "weak/strong/new..." or "bed/chair/settee..." will collocate with a certain degree of frequency for these may have a nearly equal degree of probability of collocating with "screw/nut/bolt/wire..." etc. So that "spring" may be said to belong to the "set" "screw/nut/bolt/wire...", all members of which have a similar collocational spread. The concept of "similar collocational spread" has to be carefully defined and differentiated from that degree of the "similarity of collocational spread" which might suggest the treatment of 'determine' and 'determined' as one item¹, as opposed to two members of one "lexical set".

2c. The identity of a lexical item is related to the concept of "normal collocation". Statements of normal collocation rest upon criteria of relative frequency, and indicate merely which items have the highest probability of occurrence in a given environment; the selection of a particular lexical item is not made in contrast with other items from a closed

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1. Perhaps it may be assumed that occurrences not related grammatically except in the most general way of belonging to the same class, constitute distinct items while those forming part of a grammatical paradigm, inflexional or derivational, represent one and the same item, unless there are clear formal reasons for doubting this as in the case of 'delicate/delicacy'.

set as is that of one term from a system in grammar. So while it is more "normal" to collocate "sky" rather than "girl" if the item under focus is "blue", the collocation "blue girl" is by no means impossible as the example below shows:

"There was the blue girl leaning back, a quiet river under her shoulder, the meal having crept towards the shared siesta time".

(F.F., p.181)

2d. The concept of "normal collocation" may be made more rigorous by reference to particular varieties of the language. Certain collocations judged in general, may appear unusual or "a-normal", but may often turn out to be "normal" for a given register¹. Thus while the collocation "hit a ball" may be regarded as normal in general, the collocation "hit a four" would be normal in the register of sports-discussion (specifically cricket)², though not in other varieties. It is assumed that for the majority of registers it may be possible to state, though after a very extensive study, all those collocations which are normal to a particular register, but not to others. The position of the literary register - and possibly a few others³ - is slightly different in this respect. To take the example of "blue girl" and "a thicket of April mist", both these collocations are a-normal in general. But since the frequency of each of these even in the literary register would be negligible, these particular collocations⁴ may not be considered as "normal" even in the literary register. So that the statement regarding the "normality"

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1. The relationship of particular collocations to registers is discussed by Professor McIntosh in Patterns and Ranges (Language, Vol.37, No.3, July,1961), though he does not make use of the term "register".
 2. See Section I Chapter I above, especially 4.v) pp.13-17. Patterns which are normal within one specific register have been called "register feature" with the function of "indicating" registers.
 3. The registers intuitively felt to belong to this type are 'advertisement' and 'religion', though the latter perhaps less so.
 4. It would be interesting to enquire whether a "clichetic style" in literature is one which has a higher frequency of particular collocations, which at one stage might have been a-normal in general, but occurred sometimes in literature, such as "a ray of hope", "sunshine of happiness" and the "sea of trouble".

of lexical patterns in the literary register would be made in general terms, e.g.: in literary registers there may be a larger number of collocations which would be regarded as a-normal in general - as well as in other registers (e.g. "a thicket of April mist" in the register of meteorology). The a-normality of collocational patterns may be regarded as one of the register features of the literary register.

3. Although the framework of techniques for lexical description is available¹, the results of any such study are not yet known. One of the difficulties of lexical studies is that if they are to have any general value for the description of the language as a whole, they must have covered a sample ranging over as many varieties of the language as possible. Not enough is known about lexical items, and even less about normal collocations, and while it is possible to seize upon such outstandingly a-normal collocations as "the blue girl", it will be noticed that even here what is being regarded as an a-normal lexical pattern is somewhat conditioned by the grammatical framework in which it occurs. In other words a collocation such as the following would go un-noticed: "Blue was the girl's favourite colour".²

3a. The patterns of lexis, normal in English as a whole, are not available, consequently the enquiry made here has a very restricted value.

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1. i.e. concepts such as "lexical item", "lexical set", "collocation" and "span" can be used for the study of lexis, yielding information regarding the formal patterns of lexis.
 2. For this reason it appears that the order of items within the span is not enough by itself to cope with more delicate differences in collocation. Although grammar cannot fully determine the identity of a lexical item, nevertheless perhaps a statement of collocations which also takes grammatical patterns into account would be more specific and powerful.

Moreover, assignment of items to certain groups and sets is made by reference to other strata in the works under study. This, as said earlier, is generally undesirable, especially where the contextual function of items is concerned, mainly because the situation and the function in situation are both "inferred" from the language in the first place. The aim of the study of lexis here is to discuss some types of lexical patterns from the two texts and to bring to notice the connected problems which arise in the stylistic description of texts at this level.

CHAPTER II: Lexical Patterns - Comparison.

1. Even before beginning the study of particular lexical patterns from the two texts, it is necessary to be clear what the nature of the comparison of similarity and dissimilarity at this level is. Grammar deals with a set of closed choices, therefore the selection of one pattern is in contrast with the non-selection of others. While there are contrastive selections in lexis, the statement of these cannot be made here as simply as for grammar. The similarity of selection here has a different meaning. Although it would be unjustifiable to say that situation, or "topics of discourse"¹ entirely determine the selection of lexical patterns, to quote J. McH. Sinclair:

"It would be surprising indeed if a great many of these external patterns were not reflected in language, (but we try not to inflate this expectation into preconception)".²

At the best, it may be postulated that a similarity³ in two situations may imply the selection from one or more sets which are common to both, though not necessarily of the same item. But over and above this similarity of selection there may be dissimilarities, i.e. in the selection of particular items, in the selection of other sets, in the pattern of collocations and in the tendency to repetition of the same item. Here "dissimilarity" has a distinct meaning, since the possibility of a certain amount of similarity is postulated.

1a. On the other hand where both the wider situation and the topic of discourse are dissimilar, this will presumably be reflected in the selection

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1. Cf. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*: Halliday, McIntosh and Stevens (forthcoming, Longmans, London.)
 2. Ibid., the brackets are mine.
 3. This similarity may be of varying degrees, since 'similar' may mean 'alike in most respects' or 'alike in one respect only'.

of different sets. Thus it may be, for descriptive stylistic purposes, tautologous to say that a medical text has greater selection from the lexical set "body" or "disinfectant" while that of mathematics has neither of these selections¹. Therefore the selection of particular sets in one literary text as against its non-selection in another does not present a stylistic contrast. So that at this level comparisons may be made:

- i) if the situations are similar, then of the selection of sets.
- ii) if the situations are dissimilar then only of the frequency of particular "types of collocations". Types of collocations may be set up with reference to various dimensions, as for instance that of "normality" which yields the types normal and a-normal types of collocations. Even here the mere statement of the frequency of various a-normal collocations may not bring out all the contrasts, and perhaps the type may have to be further subdivided. Again, where collocations are normal, within this there may be patterns² to be singled out on the basis of a certain kind of similarity.

Intratextually, however, there may be other axes of similarity, against which dissimilarity may be studied. To present one example, taking the participants of conversations as constants, it could be studied whether one speaker shows a consistency of selection, irrespective of the changes in the situation. And if so, then an intertextual comparison could be made to see whether both texts have this general feature of a particular consistent selection to correspond to each character.

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1. This statement has a meaning for the register-assignment of a text, but it is felt, very little for stylistic comparison.
 2. Some of these are discussed below.

1b. In the study that follows a-normal collocations are entirely ignored, but a sample of the texts was studied for various other types of collocational patterns. These patterns are called "string collocations" and are described at the appropriate place. One situation common to both the texts was studied for similarity and dissimilarity of selection and both the texts were examined for particular consistent selections to correspond to particular characters.

2. The feature of particular consistent selections to correspond to particular characters in the texts will be called here the "sketch" device, in recognition of the fact that such tendencies of selection "sketch" one aspect of a character, with the result that he/she may be identified whenever encountered next in the text¹. "Sketch" may be thought of as the frequent selection of specific items at any or all levels of language, thus there may be "lexical" or "grammatical" or "phonological" sketch. The type of sketch being described here is "lexical". To study this particular aspect of lexical patterns, the first half of each text was examined. As has been pointed out in the grammatical comparison of the texts, conversation forms a larger part of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes than it does of Free Fall. Therefore not all characters participating in conversations in the former text could be examined, but more than one speech-situation for each of the following characters was studied: Rose Lorimer, Arthur Chun, Elvira Portway, Dollie Stokesay, Clarissa Crane, Inge and Gerald Middleton. It is necessary to "have" at least two speech situations in which these characters participate, so that the consistency of selection irrespective of the situation could be examined. This last consideration reduced the

1. Some characters may appear in a series of separate stories, and perhaps it is fair to suggest that here the value of this device is great to the writer.

number of characters studied in Free Fall to two, the characters being Beatrice and Sammy Mountjoy. A further problem posed by the consideration of quoted utterances in Free Fall was that of single quoted utterances repeated verbatim during the course of a narrative and at times punctuated by larger stretches of conversations. The method adopted here was to join the single quoted utterance to the nearest speech situation and regard it as part of that.

2a. Lexical sketch was not observed to be a device much used in Free Fall. There is in Sammy Mountjoy's selections a tendency to use many swear-words, but these do not occur in all situations. Most of these words occur in his conversation with Philip, where the situation could roughly be described as "defending his own political stand". But over and above this situation is another noticeable factor - he has been drinking and the drink has "warmed" him (F.F., p.98). It cannot be entirely a coincidence that the largest number of swear-words occur within this speech, as the list below shows:

I: Conversation with Philip: (pp. 97-99).

bloody awful
 Fascist bastards
damned middle-class
Hell with my elders
bloody rude
bloody blackshirts

II: Conversation with Beatrice:

To Hell with someone (p.106)
damned agreement (p.113)

The last two items occur, again, in a situation of general "agitation", which may be inferred independent of the above two swear-words. Is it

entirely a co-incidence that the next two swear-words to be said by Sammy are again in a situation of agitation?¹ Besides this, the feature of swearing is not entirely exclusive to Sammy. His mother calls herself a "sodding liar"² and swears: "You bloody whore! keep your clap for your own bastards".³ Again, the girl Sammy marries "has" only three utterances in the book; they are detailed below⁴:

"Did you see the bastard who threw the bloody bottle?"

"I could kill that bloody sod". (F.F., p.126)

"You cock an eye at another woman and I'll
have your guts for a girdle." (F.F., p.129)

It is rather doubtful whether the last of these can be grouped with the set of swear-words, since the latter are all single items from the set, while the last is a "fixed expression". This raises the question of the place of fixed expression in lexical statements. Do they belong to any set? If so, on what criterion? Are they capable of behaving as the other single items of a set do as far as "normality" of collocation is concerned? In the absence of this information, intuition suggests the grouping of the last with the rest of the swear-words, but while intuition may be a guide it is inadequate as a scientific criterion.

As the above examples show swear-words are not specific to Sammy alone. Two interpretations are possible here: i) that swear-words in Free Fall occur in certain situations, similar in some way, irrespective of the speaker and ii) swear-words are a 'class'-distinction, and a certain group of people

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1. See pp. 133-147, Free Fall, where Sammy as a p.o.w. is being pressed for "information".
 2. Op.Cit. p.12.
 3. Op.Cit. p.21. Ma's speeches are not studied in detail because in none of the cases do they exceed more than one 'small' utterance, the one quoted here being the largest.
 4. These utterances fall outside the selected sample but are presented here to show how lexical sketch is not employed by William Golding.

may be observed to select them¹. The study of all situations of "agitation" would be required to give a conclusive interpretation, but whatever the final suggestion, it is clear that "swearing" is not used for the lexical sketching of Sammy's character.

2b. There is no lexical sketching for Beatrice, although both lexicogrammatical and phonological sketching are felt to be relevant. Thus "mm." is a usual response, or "maybe" or "I don't know". Here again, the item "know" raises a question: if an item is lexically weak², and frequent in the language in general, can its frequency in the speech of a character be regarded as a feature of lexical sketch? If so, a statement of the frequency of "know", for instance, in the language in general is needed before the selection of "know" is regarded as a feature of lexical sketch. Here, however, the question regarding the lexical item "know" does not arise because it is not entirely specific to Beatrice's speech. Since Sammy Mountjoy selects it more often than Beatrice. If however the unit was the lexicogrammatical one, i.e. "don't know", it could be shown to be a feature of such sketching for Beatrice, since all instances of "know" co-occur here with "don't", while in Sammy's speech the majority co-occur with "want to (know)".

2c. In *Anglo-Saxon Attitudes* lexical sketching is often employed as a stylistic device. Among the minor characters Clarissa Crane's speech shows a consistent selection of "intensifiers".

2c.i The "intensifier" is perhaps better not regarded as a lexical set, since items as different as "enormous" and "frightfully" are grouped

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1. Strictly speaking Taffy, the girl Sam marries, would fall out of the "class" - she does not come from a slum like Sam and his Ma, but since she is a "socialist bohemian" perhaps "swearing" is here a means of identification with the proletariat.
 2. For the concept of "weak" and "strong" lexical item see M.A.K. Halliday: *Descriptive Linguistics in Literary Studies* (in the forthcoming volume of essays entitled *Patterns of Language*: McIntosh and Halliday, Longmans, London.)

together under the category "intensifier". The term "lexical group" is suggested here to refer to those items which are abstracted from various lexical sets on the basis of a similarity in their behaviour. In grammar as classification gets more and more delicate, criteria cut across each other within the same level and across levels; this was referred to as "cross-classification".¹ Lexical grouping may roughly be described as a parallel to cross-classification in grammar. It implies a similarity which may be stated in contextual terms, but at the same time a certain degree of formal likeness is required. "Similarity of behaviour" may therefore be described as a blend of formal and contextual likeness and it is this that brings together in the "lexical group" items which both are alike in some formally describable way and have a similar contextual function.

The formal features common to intensifiers are as follows:

- i) They are sub-sets of words capable of expounding the elements o_a , e and/or the sub-modifier in the structure of the grammatical unit "group". In all these functions they may be substituted by the items "very" "greatly" and/or "great", without primarily changing the contextual meaning of the text². But the items "very", greatly or great" themselves are not regarded as an intensifier.
- ii) In the case of the submodifier the lexical set of items which are derivationally related to the lexical set "fear, awe..." but themselves form a separate set, can in general be said to act as intensifiers e.g. "awfully kind", "terribly interesting".

1. See Section III, Chapter I, pp.266-267.

2. This is checked not by notional contextual meaning but by asking whether the co-text "permits" this.

But this does not cover the entire range since "absolutely" may also be substituted by "very" in such occurrences as: "it was an absolutely fascinating book".

- iii) In the case of the element e , one of the lexical sets which may act as intensifier is, again, derivationally related to the set "fear, awe..." but forms a separate set of its own; thus "awful (darkness)" is an example of this set. This however accounts for a very few items, while there are others such as 'enormous', 'marvellous' and 'fabulous' which remain uncovered. They share a similarity with 'awful' in that co-text permitting¹ all may be substituted by "great"; thus:

awful darkness	- great darkness
enormous sense of relation	- great sense of relation
marvellous Philistine	- great Philistine

- iv) In the case of o_a the sub-class consisting of the superlatives may be regarded as intensifiers. These may not be substituted by 'greatly or great' but if the superlative-inflexion is dropped the item may accept 'very' as a submodifier without any primary change in the meaning e.g. surest sign - very sure sign.
- v) The contextual function of the intensifier is reflected in the name selected for the group. But there is no implication that wherever an utterance is "felt" to be an intensified statement, it would qualify the lexical items of the utterance for the membership of the group. So that items in the utterance: "The complexity of the problem appalled him" are not intensifiers even though the

1. Where the co-text does not permit such substitution the item may not be said to belong to the group of intensifiers. There may be cases of genuine ambiguity if the text is very limited as for example in: We felt it was an enormous racket - where 'racket' may be a tennis racket therefore not 'great' but 'big' or a 'scheme' in which case it may be 'great'.

utterance may perhaps be rewritten as "The complicated problem dismayed him".

2c.ii As in grammar so in lexis the usefulness of postulating such a category can be only shown pragmatically - what use can be made of it in the study of texts in general. It is felt that the category of "intensifiers" may be used, at least in literary texts, not only generally for the stylistic description of the entire text¹, but it may also turn out to be a category which would easily align itself with other linguistic patterns in the selections by one speaker². The point being made here is that this is not an ad hoc category set up to satisfy the intuitions regarding one particular text but that it is a category whose general applicability may be shown in other textual studies.

2c.iii Clarissa Crane's selection of intensifiers is an outstanding feature of her speech. Some of the selections are listed below:

awfully kind
frightfully important
wonderfully integral
absolutely fascinating
terribly interesting
awful darkness
marvellous Philistine
enormous sense of its relation
darkast times

It is however not the case that Clarissa monopolizes all the selections of such intensifiers in the speeches in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Both Elvira's

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1. A text may select more intensifiers as opposed to another, where this may be regarded as a stylistic feature or it may select it for specific parts of the text as in the case of Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.
 2. E.g. would it be possible to find a high frequency of intensifiers and swear-words in the speech of the same person? If not, what other lexical patterns may be observed to co-occur more often with this type of selection?

and Dollie's speeches have some of the intensifiers, but the frequency¹ of these is felt to be higher in Clarissa's speech apart from the fact that there is a somewhat different selection of items, e.g. Elvira Portway has the following group of intensifiers:

crashing bore
immensely impressed
lovely public figure
lovely money

2d. In Rose Lorimer's speeches, her preoccupation with "the pagan and the Christian", reflected in the selection of some of the lexical items, stands out as the most marked feature of lexical sketching. Thus:

fertility god
idola ... shocked²
 Northern pagan world
 two worlds - ... pagan and Christian artificial
 Anglo-Saxon deity
 trade ... Christian mission
 preaching Gospel
 keep ... saving ... souls
 destroy Church of Iona
 filling holy vessel ... blood
 ancient sacrifices remember ... Good Friday
 realm ... spirit ... overflowed .. transformed ... material life

The underlined show the frequency of selection from the lexical set "religion". None of the other characters in the novel has such a frequency of items from this set. Of course the selection of items from the same set,

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1. This frequency cannot be stated in absolute statistical terms without a count of all the lexical items in the speeches but if the comparison of the "length" of speeches in terms of pages is any guide, then the frequency of these in Clarissa's speech is higher.
 2. The dots show that the interruptions are by grammatical items. Collocates only from within the boundary of the clause in which the node occurs, are stated. The nodes are underlined.

when determined by the "topic of discourse" could not legitimately be regarded as a sketch feature; if that was the case, however, in a conversation other participants may be expected to show a similar if not identical selection. Rose's selections are all the more striking because the topic of discourse is described as "Early Medieval trade".

2d.1 Another tendency of selection to sketch Rose may perhaps be described as "greater randomness" of collocation. Randomness of collocation can so far not be "proved" since the norms for this or for normal collocation are not available, therefore the account that follows is highly intuitive, nevertheless it is presented here as an example of yet another set of problems to be solved prior to arriving at a conclusion. A stretch of Rose's speech covering the first 50 lexical occurrences¹ is presented below in the order in which they occur. The passage is taken from her first connected speech, where she is not interrupted by other speakers. This, last, is necessary in order to show that the randomness is not a result of interruption or diversion of topic through any other circumstances².

....worked.....closely..... Professor Stokesay
 memory dear ... alive experienced....
 evening remarkable pleasure ... listening
 Professor Pforzheim's wonderful lecture
 owe know Lionel Stokesay
 know dreamed past yield approach
 reverence dedication past past
 lies present
 common girlhood study history
 dry discipline remember old hall
 Manchester - understand, pulled down went
 reluctant scepticism hear famous Lionel
 Stokesay lecture scepticism washed away
 floodgates discourse opened ...

(A-S.A., p.42)

Where items such as are comparatively less frequent like "girlhood" are concerned, the randomness of the collocation of "present common

1. i.e. not necessarily 50 lexical items. Actually the occurrences add up to 52.

2. A longer row of dots indicates an interspersed narrative by the author.

girlhood history dry discipline" is immediately obvious. Lexically weak items such as "know" which not only occur very frequently but may have a very wide collocational spread, present a problem, since their selection itself may perhaps never be regarded random and yet claiming the nearest places in the order of the collocational spread they may cause the occurrences not to look random. A case in point, is that of "wonderful lecture" and "dreamed". Perhaps, then, in any account of the collocational patterns of a text, there should be a means of distinguishing between the occurrences of items which are random in general, and those which are observed to be random in a particular text.

In order to show what is implied by greater randomness of selection below is presented another stretch of speech, that of Arthur Clun's. This piece was chosen because it is not interrupted by any comments from other participants, as is the case with the speeches of the other characters under study.

...sure wish to give ... time household matters
 know ... great deal ... work on my hands ... bad
 ... go lecture ... relish ... idea ... spending
 ... hour listening ... Pforzheim able ... prospect ...
 hearing Rose Lorimer air ... crazy theories
 Sir Edgar better Chairman Middleton
 modicum ... sense ... responsibility position ...
 give waste hours precious time pointless
 generalities ... whole conceptStokesay Annual Lectures
 ... entirely out of date

(A-S.A., p.23)

An objective or statistical comparison of the degree of randomness in the two passages is impossible at this stage. But intuitively it seems that Clun's passage has only two random occurrences, that of "household matters". But here even more than in Lorimer's passage the occurrence of such lexically weak items as 'sure, wish, give, know, great deal, work' etc.

'hides' the randomness of collocation between 'household matters' and 'lecture'.

2e. As the passage quoted from Clun's speech above shows, there is a tendency to select frequently those items which have a higher probability of occurring in the written mode¹ rather than in the spoken. Items belonging to the written mode will be referred to as 'marked lexical items'. Clun's speeches show not only a tendency of frequent selection of marked lexical items but also where the unmarked ones are selected the majority of these appear to be those very weak items the occurrence of which may perhaps be regarded as pretty uniformly random for the entire language, as a study of the selections quoted above will show.

2f. In contrast to Clun Dollie's selections are mostly from the spoken mode. People are addressed as "old boy, old dear, old thing, poor pet", or by nicknames e.g. "Gerry". "Jolly" and "pretty" are selected often, so:

jolly tired
jolly exciting
pretty serious
pretty near²

A certain amount of swear-words also occur:

blast you
why the hell
damned presents
bloody children

Fixed expressions³ from the spoken mode appear very often, thus for example:

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1. The mode-distinction of written v. spoken does not consist of lexical selections only, but those patterns which belong exclusively to grammar are not the concern of this chapter.
 2. Not all occurrences are stated here.
 3. For the meaning of fixed expression see J. McH. Sinclair's treatment of cats and dogs in: 'it rained cats and dogs'. Op.Cit.

in a jiffy
 (the pater is) hot stuff
 (my family) gave (me) the go-by
 need many goes
 don't put the wind up you.

Following J.McH. Sinclair's suggestion¹, fixed expressions may be treated as one lexical item. It is however not clear what the position of such lexical items would be so far as lexical sets are concerned. But clearly the problem may be treated in the same manner as that of the single lexical items.

2g. The sketch device is used in a very concentrated form where Inge Middleton is concerned. The features are both grammatical and lexical. Among the lexical features the selection of size words such as "little/big/great/tiny" which may roughly be assigned to the same set, is very frequent. There are no less than 48 occurrences from this set, but "little" is selected more often and accounts for no less than 40 of these occurrences. Some of these selections are presented below:

little Molly's black hair
little Denmark
little Harry/Kay/Morris
big Donald
little baby
little people
little fox
little, tiny income

Nature-words² occur often; the following sub-sets are presented as an example.

cyclamen	sun	seeds
cineraria	stars	grow
rosebuds	mountains	
roses	summer	
sheaf	night	
garden		
birch		
tree.		

-
1. See Beginning of the Study of Lexis, mentioned before.
 2. This may perhaps be regarded as a wide lexical set.

The item "good" is selected no less than 16 times, and perhaps the selection of items such as 'clean', 'simple', 'fine' and 'beautiful' may be regarded as an extension of the same set as "good".

2h. As the discussion above shows lexical sketch is a stylistic feature in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. It is therefore all the more significant that this device is not employed to sketch Gerald. His speech shows a fairly wide range of selections of lexical sets, but no particular selection is consistent to all these situations. Whether grammatical or lexicogrammatical sketch is used cannot be said without further study, though no particular pattern of either kind forced itself to attention.

In summing up the discussion of this particular type of lexical pattern it may be pointed out how the pattern being compared here intratextually for Anglo-Saxon Attitudes is not the comparison of the selection of particular items across characters but rather that of a pattern similar in general though different in details in each case. Indeed, had the selections of items been similar in detail, the device of lexical sketch could not be shown to exist. Similarly, the mere fact of the selection of different individual lexical items is of no great consequence, since it may prove no more than that the "topic of discourse" or the situation is dissimilar. Where there is a similar situation the selections of items themselves and of their collocations may show certain points of contrast. In the following para a similar situation from the two texts is compared.

3. The two situations are similar in one respect: they both culminate in a proposal. Naturally, since the participants have a different history of relationship, in this essential respect the situations are vitally different. In the background of the situation in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, is

a mounting war, while the shadow of an approaching war is hinted at in Free Fall. In the former is Dollie Stokesay a young war-widow, bitter at her unfaithfulness to her husband, in the latter is Beatrice whose "innocence" touches the bounds of frigidity. Neither of these conversations which culminate in a proposal, begin directly as a proposal, and a fair amount of conversation precedes both, though in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes the stretch is longer. Yet the conversation leading up to the proposal is a part of the immediate situations and selections from the entire conversation will be compared below.

3a. As a first step, the entire selection of lexical items for both is stated below. Each participant's selections are presented separately for each situation, and the occurrences are listed in the order in which they were found in the text:

Anglo-Saxon Attitudes¹:

Gerald: think, week, time, disgusting fatness, neutral climate - winning, cups - think, lot, people, home, find, merry - unfair, wonderful job nursing - listen, gossip, lot, Dollie - marriage, washed up, Gilbert, went out, married, treated, brute, say, friend, killed, shameful waste - shut up, little fool, go on torturing - look Dollie try, remember, happened, lonely, unhappy, knew, Gilbert, faithful, last leave, blame, love Dollie - going, damned mission, care, means, courtmartial, going to leave, unhappy bitter state - for God's sake - marry, Dollie, make, happy.

Dollie: think, Hastings, semi-finals, week - disgusting, last tournament, turning into a pot-hunter, rabbits, miss, Canadians, suppose, Yanks, think, Harry Tate says, glad, come, the more the merrier, say - sorry old thing, know, like, say things, make, words, Gerrie, fools, think, merry, see - meaning, Gerrie - Gerrie, wonderful job, wonderful job playing mixed doubles, Canadians, wonderful job giving good times, boys, leave dancing, shows, sleeping, brigadier - sorry old thing, knew, language, upsets, forget, fast, heard, old hens cackle - young war widow, heard, pater talking, moving, forgets, two millions, kept, home fires burning, decency, darling Gilbert - said, friend, killed, said, bed, exact - sure -

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1. Items from one 'speech' were punctuated by commas, while the end of utterance is indicated by a dash. Thus items from 'think' to 'climate' all occur within one utterance, while between 'climate' and 'winning' there is an interruption. The interruption may either be by the speech of the other participant or a narrative by the author. The absence of commas between two items indicates that there was no interruption grammatical or otherwise.

high old time, enjoyed, heard, little Mrs. Stokesay, forgot, listen, gossip, know, ask, club, tell, little Mrs. Stokesay, hot stuff - say, hear, still day, know, respectable Eastbourne forget, going on - thankyou kindly, napoo!, look, leave home, going, shack, good time Gerrie, women, told - Gerrie, for God's sake get up, made one man unhappy, brainy, Gilbert, help, career, get in the way, for heaven's sake, see, trying to tell, want to marry, Gerrie, bored to tears, week - bored to tears, know, fancy, fancy, cocktail, make for, American bar, wear mufti, dear little Danes, care, reminded, war.

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes pp.141-143)

Free Fall:

Sammy: live Beatrice - move, silly girl, address, side, head side, live, inch apart, live, back, head, back, front, live, put, fingers, nape, neck, move, close, closer - said, loved, God, know, means, want, want, cold kisses, walks, want, want fusion, identity, want to understand, God Beatrice Beatrice, love, want - say, love, go made - to hell with, turn, face - thought, friends, - wrong, friends, friends, feel, kiss - think, feel - marry - say, some time - marry - kill - meant - said, cared, God - Beatrice - say.

Beatrice: Sammy - Sammy - Sammy, sensible - thought - thought - want, look Sammy, think - know - college, money, - coming - see - better hurry Sammy, miss, bus, ages - married, ages.

(Free Fall, pp. 105-107)

The comparison of the selections of lexical patterns here highlights the type of problems which may be encountered in textual lexical comparison. The meaning of the selection of dissimilar sets is completely unknown; since there is no closed contrast in lexical selection, the nonselection of a particular pattern or item does not indicate the necessity of the selection of one of the few stateable choices. The frequency of lexical occurrence could be compared between the participants of each situation, but such a comparison yields a result which is only trivially revealing. The items which are selected in both situations are:

- | | |
|----------|---------|
| 1. think | 2. kill |
| know | love |
| want | marry |
| say | friend |
| mean | time |
| look | care |
| see | miss |
| come | |

All the items in list 1 are weak lexical items, and their expected frequency in the language in general is high. The meaning of the similar selection here is therefore different from that of the second list. Again, it cannot be said here with any certainty whether "want" represents the same item in the two speeches, nor can anything certain be said about "miss". Is "miss the bus" and "miss the Canadians" a repetition of the same lexical item, or is it two different items? 'Care' intuitively appears to be two items in the two speeches. The other five items from the second list show differences in collocation, thus to quote a span of five collocates on either side of the node:

Kill: marry - say, some time - marry, kill - meant - said cared, God,
Beatrice -

(Free Fall)

decency, darling Gilbert - said, friend, killed, said bed, exact -
sure - high old time

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

married, treated, brute, say, friend, killed, shameful waste,
shut up, little fool, go on torturing.

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

love: nape, neck, move, close, closer, said, loved, God, know, means,
want, want

(Free Fall)

knew, Gilbert, faithful, last leave, blame, love Dollie going,
damned mission, care, means, court martial

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

Marry: friends, feel, kiss, think, feel, marry, say, some time, marry,
kill, meant, said, cared, God

(Free Fall)

hurry, Sammy, miss, bus, ages, married, ages (Free Fall)

nursing, listen, gossip, lot, Dollie, marriage, washed up, Gilbert,
went out, married, treated, brute, say, friend, killed

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

leave, unhappy bitter state, for God's sake, marry Dollie, make,
happy

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

for heaven's sake, see, trying to tell, want to marry Gerrie, bored
to tears, week, bored to tears, know fancy.

(Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

friend: go mad, to hell with, turn, face, thought friends, wrong friends,
friends, feel, kiss, think, feel, marry (Free Fall)

went out, married, treated, brute, say, friend, killed, shameful
 waste, shut up, little fool. (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

home fires burning, decency, darling Gilbert, said, friend,
 killed, said, bed, exact, sure, high old time. (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

Time¹ kills, think, feel, marry, say, some time, marry kill, meant,
 said, cared, God. (Free Fall)

think, week, time, disgusting fatness, neutral climate, winning
 (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

Canadians, wonderful job, giving good times, boys, leave, dancing,
 shows, sleeping (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

killed, said, bed, exact, sure, high old time, enjoyed, heard,
 little Mrs. Stokesay, forgot (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

look, leave home, going, shock, good time Gerrie women, told,
 Gerrie, for God's sake. (Anglo-Saxon Attitudes)

Apart from the contrast of these collocational patterns there are two other features which may be pointed out. While it is to be expected that in a situation of proposal there may occur an item from the set "marry", the occurrence of an item from the set in its turn sets up a certain expectancy of its collocations. No reliable information is available regarding the probability of the occurrence of the various possible collocates, but intuitively it may appear that the set "happy", "kiss" or "body" "feel", "love" and a few others may co-occur. If that is the case, it is interesting to note that in Free Fall there is a very high frequency of "body" words though these could not be "netted" in the collocational spread of the node itself, but the items "feel" and "kiss" and "care" co-occur with "marry". On the other hand the lexical set "happy" is entirely missing while the situation is

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1. It is doubtful that all occurrences of "time" represent the same lexical item. Whether times is different from time, or whether good time(s) should be regarded as one complex item cannot be said without more study of the collocations of these items.

somewhat reversed in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Here the collocational span of 'marry' nets items such as "unhappy, bitter, happy, and bored to tears", while "love" cannot be netted in the stated span. Of the collocates of "marry", "kill" in Free Fall appears to be the most a-normal, or at least as a-normal as "bored to tears" if the latter cannot be shown to belong to the set "happy/unhappy".

4. The concept of a-normal collocation cannot be exploited fully in this study, since the norms themselves are not yet available. But certain types of collocational patterns may be studied. Even here the problem is that of the identification of lexical items and their set-membership; these, however, can be more justifiably based upon intuition than can any statement regarding norms, though, of course, this does not imply that the intuitively arrived at lexical items and sets can serve the purpose of describing a language efficiently.

The certain types of collocations, suggested as a possible field of enquiry, are not presented as a substitute for the study of a-normal collocations. It is, however, expected that these types may have a certain general applicability and that their selection in texts may turn out to be a significant feature of comparison or contrast. The general type itself may be described as "string collocations". "String collocations" may in fact be briefly described as "collocations between the members of approximately the same set". These collocations are observed within a given "distance", and more specifically may follow certain clearly stateable patterns. The two patterns recognised and studied here are: "continuous string" and "double string".

4a. A continuous string is defined here as items of the same

approximate set occurring together without the interruption of any other lexical item of a set which at the same degree of delicacy may be regarded as a distinct set, thus while 'move, run, walk' may be said to form a continuous string 'speak, move, write, run, buy, walk' may not, since the items 'speak, write, or buy' cannot form a set with 'move, run, walk'.

4b. On the other hand, if the order of occurrence was 'speak, move, write, run', this presents a pattern in its own right where 'speak, move' are like 'write, run'. So that it is in fact not a relationship of lexical items as such but that of set A to set B. Both may be stated as AB, AB. The co-occurrences of the items of two or more sets which form a string of this type is called "double string". A double string may be AB, AB, or AB, BA, as long as A and B denote the same two individual sets, and provided that any sets CD ... do not interrupt; thus AB C BA would not be regarded as an instance of double string collocation.

4c. While this formulation regarding the sets ensures that the interruption by other lexical sets will be noticed, it does not specify the "distance" between items of the same set. "Distance" is not identical with "span", since the latter depends for its identity upon the concept of "node", which acts as the central point of reference. The "node" in string collocations is a "complex node", if indeed there is any gain in regarding it as a "node". The value of the "node" is that it helps in making statements about ordered collocation. As may be seen, string collocations are in fact a special case of collocation, where the statement "three places filled by set A in continuous string" or "three alternate places filled by sets A and B in double string", is exchangeable with "complex node A³" "complex node AB³". The collocation of these complex nodes, though it may

be interesting in itself, is not a part of the statement about string collocations. In other words string collocations are concerned with a tighter and narrower structure, to which the concept of "span" appears inapplicable internally (i.e., within the string) though this is not to deny that there may be a use for it in examining the external patterns (i.e. those on either side of the string) into which the string enters. However some concept of "distance" was felt to be necessary, for the reason that the following would appear to be somewhat different cases of the co-occurrences of the items of the same set:

- i) The novel and poems of Hardy show.....
- ii) I didn't read the novel. I just couldn't.
It wasn't there. I would have, if it was,
but it wasn't. The poems were all I could
lay my hands on, and I read those.

Although in general recognizing that grammatical interruption is comparatively irrelevant to the study of lexical patterns, it was felt that "novel .. poems" in i) above is a "stronger" collocation than "novel..... poems" in ii). For this reason "distance" was defined grammatically. Strings were recognized as internal to one clause boundary. This avoids classing i) and ii) together, but it is recognized that this is not an ideal solution for it leaves the following type of pattern completely out of control:

I could feel all the beginning of my wide, and wild
jealousy; jealousy that she was a girl, the most
obscure jealousy of all - that she could take lovers
and bear children, was smooth,gentle and sweet, that
the hair flowered on her head, that she wore silk and
scent and powder; jealousy of the chapel-deep
inexplicable fury with her respectable devotion and
that guessed at sense of communion; jealousy, final
and complete that the people

(F.F., p.80)

5. String collocations were studied from a random sample of both

texts. Every lexical occurrence of every twenty-fifth page from Free Fall and every fortieth page from Anglo-Saxon Attitudes was examined. The total number of lexical occurrences in the two texts were 1239 (F.F.) and 1378 (A-S.A.). Of these, 143 (F.F.) and 89 (A-S.A.) entered in continuous string. Of these, 64 (F.F.) occurrences were in a grammatically co-ordinate relation, where a linking item such as 'and/but/or/if/though' was present, while in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes the number of such strings is 32. Some of these strings are listed below as an example:

F. F.	A - S. A.
burning flame	thought spoke
memory ... memory	fixed ... permanent
stalls market-place	councils, institutes
red and blue	impressing impressed
smooth and gentle and sweet	sin or ... sin
understand and ... understood	wit and sparkle
stretch and stretch	food and drink
pulled and pulled	takes and ... gives

The occurrences entering in continuous string collocation form approximately 11.5% (F.F.) and 6.4% (A-S.A.) of the total lexical occurrences in the sample, while those in co-ordinate relation within such strings form approximately 5.1% (F.F.) and 2.3% of the total.

5a. Double strings are selected more often in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes, where the total of occurrences entering in such strings is 54 as opposed to Free Fall's selection¹ of 51. However the percentile frequency of these is again higher for Free Fall, where 4.1% of the total occurrences enter in double strings, while 3.9% form the double strings in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes. Some examples of double strings are stated below:

1. The number is odd because one string consists of three sets and is repeated three times thus ABC³.

F. F.

yellow smear ... white enamel
 three ... held three ... pulled
 ten minutes ... station.... thirty seconds shop
 gusty black hair, slow creamy smile, wide red mouth

A - S. A.

passive gloom... active irritation
 exposes ... canker, proposes remedy
 season theory ... pinch practice
 swallowing quantities... champagne, gobbling up lobster patties

5b. The totals of occurrences in the two types of strings for Free Fall¹ are 191 and for Anglo-Saxon Attitudes 143, yielding a percent frequency of 15.4% (F.F.) and 10.3% (A-S.A.)

While the interpretation of grammatical selections is difficult that of lexis, presents even greater problems, mainly because of the lack of authoritative information regarding lexical patterns in the language. The comparison does prove here that the study of string collocations may show differences between two texts, but whether these differences are random and likely to occur between any two texts or not cannot be said. Therefore not much can be stated on the strength of the contrast discovered in these patterns. It may perhaps be suggested that a stylistic feature of grammatical selection is repeated in lexis as well, as far as Free Fall is concerned. This refers to the higher frequency of the strings in general and to those in coordinate relation in particular.

6. The foregoing discussion only represents a fraction of what might have been said about lexical patternings in the text, and an infinitely smaller proportion of what alignments of lexical patterns may be discovered

1. Four less than 143 + 51, because four occurrences participate in both types of string e.g. in red and green lawn, blue sky, where 'green' enters in both relations. There are no double relations in Anglo-Saxon Attitudes.

once a large scale study of lexis has made certain basic assumptions more objective, and supplied results which are vital to the study of lexis in style. It should be reiterated that the aim of this chapter is to show how to avoid subjective statements regarding "words" and to point out the problems that face anyone who makes an attempt to present an objective study of lexical patterns. "Words" have been most often dealt with by traditional critics but like the rest of the language, their treatment of it is marred by impressionistic and ad hoc categories. While it cannot be stated that all units discussed here are scientifically delimited, at least, an effort was made to use the same criteria for both the texts and for each text, for internal comparison. In this respect what is said about a group of lexical items is patently observable and open to refutation provided enough proof can be presented. And herein lies the strength of the treatment of lexis objectively rather than impressionistically or primarily semantically.

SECTION V.

Conclusion.

1. The foregoing study is an attempt to show how by the use of the techniques of descriptive linguistics it may be possible to describe and compare the styles of texts in a way which is both objectively valid and revealing. The descriptive stylistic terms such as complexity, cohesion, shift lexical sketch and others are established with reference to specific selections of patterns. They have therefore the status of general categories which are potentially applicable to all texts in language with a meaning that remains constant across registers and situations. In this respect they have an advantage over impressionistic epithets commonly applied to the styles of texts, particularly in literature. The weakness of such terms is that they are used ad hoc and are themselves not clearly defined. When the meaning of the term "elegant" itself is not clear, it is not surprising that the phrase "elegant style" means so little in terms of the description of the style of a text. The same texts are observed to arouse different reactions in different individuals¹, and though it may be interesting to study the various reactions aroused by a text, it is submitted that at least at this stage such a discovery is not part of the stylistic study. It is only when the individual is the centre of the enquiry that a "poem itself" may be said to be "a most elusive thing that can never be put on any screen or page"², as it is then identified with the sum total of the reader's linguistic, social and emotional experience. It is clear that such experience will vary from reader to reader, conditioning their reactions and hence their "description" of the text. For this reason the "68 Measures

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1. Consider the views of T.S. Eliot and F.R. Leavis on D.H. Lawrence both regarding his art and his style.
 2. I.A. Richards: Poetic Process and Literary Analysis (Style in Language , edited by T.A. Sebeok, Technology Press and Wiley, p.12).

of Prose Style"¹ along vectors such as "Meaningful -meaningless", "Elegant-uncouth", "Interesting-boring" and so on appear to be rather irrelevant to the study of the style of the texts in question. The objective approach concentrates on that which may be assumed as a constant - i.e., the selection of linguistic patterns - in all cases, and accounts for these in terms of clearly defined descriptive stylistic categories.

2. In the course of the description of the style of the texts under study several questions are raised. These relate mostly to how use may be made of linguistic findings to bring out not only points of contrast but also those of similarity. The concept of style obviously rests upon a certain degree of freedom of selection from among a set of available patterns. This however does not imply that the description of style consists of an inventory of "deviations" from the language as a whole. The description of the style of a text involves different axes of comparison: for example, the comparison of texts from the same register as opposed to the comparison of texts across registers. The meaning of similarity or contrast in selection varies in the two cases.

2a. One problem that arises again and again is that of the basis for the alignment of categories. While for the analysis of the text, it is necessary that each particular category - and the more delicately defined the category the more useful it may be - should be separated from another, for the description of style it appears necessary that these categories should be brought together along as many axes of similarity as can be discovered and shown to exist. Because of the special nature of the textual context of situation it is desirable that as far as possible the basis of such alignment

1. J.B. Carroll: Vectors of Prose Style, Table 1, Results for 68 Measures of Prose Style; Reliability Coefficients and loadings on six dimensions of Prose Style (Style in Language, pp.286-287).

should not be only that of similarity in contextual function. Where similarity of contextual function is postulated, it is desirable that linguistic evidence from the co-text should also be cited. These steps are necessary to avoid the circularity of the use of contextual function in cases where the axis of verification is almost irrelevant.

2b. The value of the categories, whether exclusive to one level or the result of a cross-classification across levels, is a vastly interesting and exacting problem. The value under discussion is that established by reference to the axes of linguistic patterning. Thus, the value of an F clause might be that it may consist of S+/P+/C+/Z+/A, but within this the value of S might be that it may be expounded by a simple or a compound group or by a rankshifted clause. Some of the stylistic descriptive terms will derive a clearer meaning from a clearer formulation of the value of certain general types of patterns. Thus, perhaps a minimal type of clause might be regarded as having the same value as a minimal type of group as far as complexity is concerned. This however is the beginning of a complex problem, since it may be asked whether the definition of "minimum" is itself available. It has been suggested¹ that a minimal type of unit may be defined by reference to a class and the range of types that the class may command. This presents a field of enquiry the results from which may be very useful in determining the values of patterns. The value of patterns as register-indicators is also of interest to the description of style. Part of the meaning of a double string collocation may be that it can be treated as a register feature of the literary register. No definite and conclusive answers to any of the queries raised above are provided in this work, since their answer depends on studies which vary in scope and cover texts of different varieties.

1. See Section III, last chapter ("range" especially).

2c. It may be noticed that in lexis frequent references are made to other strata than that of style, e.g. in discussing selections within a textual context of situation. This raises a general question regarding the comparison of lexis: can lexical statements and their comparison be made as autonomously as those of grammar? There is no reason for doubting that they can, even though it may require a prior study of lexis in general in the first place. The fact that use had here to be made of other strata is revealing in one respect. In traditional literary criticism certain words are grouped together upon some situational or impressionistic criteria. While it is hoped that the foregoing discussion of lexical patterns shows that more objective statements are possible it must be recognized that the power of any sets of statements in stylistics is directly dependent upon the developement of general linguistics and its use in the description of the language as a whole. If either these developments are ignored or the actual results of the use of a technique have not been made available, then the statement of style to that extent would perforce be different from that envisaged here. In other words, it would be "synthetic" to begin with.

3. The implication is not that each stratum of the literary text should be studied only in isolation. Here again the approach recommended opens a wide field of enquiry. The bringing together of the various strata of literary texts is a proposed part of such a study. Both the lexical and the grammatical patterns will require to be studied in conjunction with the stratum of the internal organisation of the text. The resultant statements though falling in the field of literary study are not, strictly speaking, statements regarding the style as such. However their usefulness in literary studies appears to be obvious.

4. The present treatment of the style of continuous texts appears to have advantages over both the approach recommended by S.R. Levin and that by Zellig S. Harris¹. A brief comparison was made of the present approach with that of Levin² in an earlier chapter. Harris' recommended equivalence method appears to present vast problems. The main objections can be summed up as

- a) vagueness in the description of what constitutes "equivalent environment".³
- b) the dependence of the "equivalence class" upon criteria that vary from item to item.
- c) the concentration upon "items" as opposed to elements and
- d) the limited validity of both the equivalence environment and the equivalence class.⁴

It is highly doubtful whether equivalence determined by specific items may ever be stated in general terms even for one text, while any intertextual comparisons would be rendered entirely impracticable if Harris' approach was followed. This is a logical result of the instantial definition of equivalence class from text to text, and the differing criteria employed to define the "classes". If the value of the formula TE is to be stated freshly in each new case, clearly its use has little meaning in the statement of the inter-sentence structures encountered within a text⁵.

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1. Z.S. Harris: Discourse Analysis (Language Vol. 28, No.1, 1952, pp.1-30).
 2. See Section I, Chapter I especially page ?
 3. M and N are said to belong to the class M because they may occur in AM and AN patterns; however A itself is later defined as that which occurs before M or N. While this practice is justifiable where A, M and N represent elements of the structure of a "bigger structure", the practice appears to be dubious where such diverse items are classed together as "can't be wrong" and "say they prefer X - to any hair tonic they've used". (Op.Cit pp.6-8).
 4. "Our statements about the distribution of each element can only be valid within the limits of this succession of sentences, whether it be a paragraph or a book". (Harris, Op.Cit. p.5).
 5. It is interesting to note, however, that the TE formula does not refer to an inter-sentence relation and adds little to our knowledge of any such relation beyond that which may be said to exist by virtue of the selection of intra-sentence patterns which are in some way alike. (Op.Cit. especially page 7).

5. Finally it may be added that if the present approach to the study of literary texts and to its style in particular is accepted, it may help to solve many of the problems of teaching a foreign literature, where the primary contact of the reader is more with what is "put on any screen or page"¹ i.e. with the linguistic pattern, rather than with the penumbra of social background or cultural conventions. A large number of trivial remarks² upon the style of authors can be directly attributed to the use of impressionistic labels which by tradition have come to be freely collocated with the term "style". If the description of style is restricted to an account of observable phenomena, it may be possible to require statements whose greater objectivity renders them open to further scrutiny.

1. I.A. Richards (quoted above).

2. See Professor Quirk's account of these in *The Use of English* (Longmans, London).

Appendix.

(F.F., p.29)

a) Sentences delimited graphically

Sc. No.	Kl. no. (serial)
1. $F B^x$	1, 2
2. $F F F$	3, 4, 5
3. $\&F F$	6, 7
4. F	8
5. $\&F B''$	9, 10
6. $F B''$	11, 12
7. $B^x F B''$	13, 14, 15
8. $\&F$	16
9. $\&F$	17
10. F	18
11. $F (B^+)$	19, 20
12. F	21
13. $F \&F \&F$	22, 23, 24
14. $\&F$	25
15. $\&F$	26
16. $B^x C^x F \&F F$	27, 28, 29, 30, 31
17. $\&F \&F$	32, 33
18. $\&F \&F$	34, 35
19. $F B^x$	36, 37
20. $F \&F$	38, 39
21. $F \&F$	40, 41
22. $F \&F B^x \&F$	42, 43, 44, 45

b) grammatically.

Sc. No.	Kl. no. (serial)
1. $F B^x$	1, 2
2. F	3
3. F	4
4. $F \&F$	5, 6
5. F	7
6. $F \&F B''$	8, 9, 10
7. $F B''$	11, 12
8. $(B^x F B'' \&F$ $\&F$	13, 14, 15, 16 17
9. F	18
10. $F (B^+)$	19, 20
11. F	21
12. $F \&F \&F \&F \&F$	22, 23, 24, 25, 26
13. $B^x C^x F \&F$	27, 28, 29, 30
14. $(F \&F \&F$ $\&F \&F$	31, 32, 33 34, 35
15. $F B^x$	36, 37
16. $F \&F$	38, 39
17. $F \&F$	40, 41
18. $F \&F B^x \&F$	42, 43, 44, 45

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